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EDITORIAL

The aims of education and the methods of teaching are inextricably bound together. Curiously enough, authors of textbooks seem lamentably content with narrow aims and the narrowest of teaching methods consequent upon them. The point may be illustrated by comment on The Psychology of the Common Branches, by William Henry Pyle (Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1930).

The purpose of the book, *The Psychology of the Common Branches*, according to the author, "is to set forth the principles of teaching reading, spelling, handwriting, and arithmetic—the elementary skill subjects—in so far as these principles have been scientifically established."

The study aims to include a consideration of the psychological principles involved in teaching the fundamentals and therefore indicates neither directly nor by implication the sociological principles involved, although the introductory statement leads the reader to infer that the author has in mind all the principles involved. My guess is that the author is unaware of the fact that sociological principles are involved in teaching at all.

We are strongly of the opinion that much harm has been done in the development of the school program by this one-sided emphasis on educational method. The author may contend that he is not interested, in this text, in the

social aspects of teaching; but that is just the point, none of the other writers on method are interested in its sociological aspects.

Take for instance this author's discussion of the measurement of reading. He explains in full how to measure speed and comprehension in reading and outlines the method of their development after the manner of writers in this field, but nowhere does he even imply that the most important thing to measure about reading is not rate or speed and comprehension at all, but rather reading habits and the effect of reading upon personality.

Moreover, the author, like others, leaves the impression that he has said all that should be said about the teaching and measurement of reading. A psychologist should be interested in the development of capacities or qualities other than speed and comprehension, and his failure to indicate his interest leaves the impression that there are no other outcomes of teaching reading to be sought or measured. But these weaknesses, as viewed from the standpoint of the sociologist, are no worse in this text than in others of its kind and we should say, with fairness to this author, that the book is well written, the text is attractively printed, and, within the limits outlined above, he has done an orthodox job well. We wish, however, that some writer of texts would see education not as the process acquiring the fundamental facts of subjects but as personality growth.

NOTE

This issue of *THE JOURNAL* has been prepared by Professor Benjamin F. Stalcup, editor of *News from the Field and Contributors' Page*.

THE RELATION BETWEEN CONTENT AND METHOD

FRANKLIN BOBBITT

The traditional program of education has consisted of "learning one's lessons," mostly from textbooks, in an academic atmosphere apart from current human living, and with only a vague and ineffectual consciousness of purpose beyond the lesson learning and the testing. The content of this education has been the textbook subject matter to be learned. The method on the part of the pupil has been simply to concentrate on the material, with repetition, until it was learned well enough for recitation and examination. Beyond the examination it was a matter of no educational concern. The French and the algebra, the history and the science might then be used or neglected, remembered or forgotten, and it was all one to the school. When the credit was on the books, the objective had been achieved.

The recently developing functional education has no interest in a lesson learning that is relatively purposeless except for meaningless "graduation." It sets up a wholly different objective. It seeks to bring about current high-grade human living on the part of the children and youths. It realizes that if the young people can be brought to live consistently in an elevated civilized way during the first twenty years of life, their characters, interests, valuations, habits, social behavior, mental behavior, and resulting information will have become properly developed through normal exercise. They will have *grown* into full-formed civilized and efficient human beings. Having thus attained the full stature of manhood and womanhood, they are prepared for the ensuing fifty years of adulthood.

The term "content" in education has meant the content

of books, the subject matter to be learned. It was the thing to be stored in the child's mind, becoming in its turn the mental content. The term was quite appropriate to the archaic traditional storage type of education. But for modern functional education, the term is no longer appropriate. This newer type of education will, of course, use books and other reading materials in abundance; but they are merely means to certain vital phases of intellectual living. Its interest is in the continuity of human behavior, in school and out of school, during all the years of growth. Functional education will perhaps discard the misleading term "content," and adopt some term that refers to "continuity of behavior."

In the traditional education, "method" has meant the type of procedure to be employed by teachers and pupils in making the content of the book the content of the child's mind. In the functional education, on the other hand, method on the part of the teacher is the procedure that he must employ in getting the child or youth currently to hold to high-grade human living. On the part of the pupil, his method is simply currently holding in all of his behavior to a proper type and level. Teacher method is *guiding* the life continuity. Pupil method is *living* the life continuity. To the pupil, life and the educative process are identical. The teacher is a conditioner of this process. His method consists of providing the necessary opportunities, stimulations, leadership, and guidance.

The present writer was asked to discuss the relation between content and method. He has no interest in the antiquated lesson-learning type of education beyond a desire to see it supplanted by a more effective kind. From this point, then, the discussion will relate only to the functional education and the relations between the continuity of human living and the methods to be employed in conditioning it.

To begin with, the continuity of practice in human behavior that is to be guided goes on twenty-four hours

a day and one hundred sixty-eight hours a week. Whether it is accomplished well or badly, it is clear that the conditioning and, therefore, the education by some person or by society is actually going on during all of these hours. It is not a question of whether education should be going on during all of the time; it is merely a matter of how it goes on, since there is no possibility of interrupting the continuity of practice in living, which is currently resulting in the actual education. The family is conditioning the activities for the greater portion of the time; the school for a quite considerable, though much less, portion of the time—about one hour in nine, to be exact; and other elements of the community, each for a still smaller fraction of the time.

If, then, we would consider the method by which the educative process is guided, we must note the various methods that are to be employed in conditioning the different portions of the uninterrupted and uninterruptible continuity.

Long before children ever go to school, the family will have been employing methods, whether good or bad, in conditioning the life continuity, and therefore the education of their children. They provide the opportunities for the innumerable activities to be carried on by the children within the family milieu. The older members of the family will be examples to the younger members, both consciously and unconsciously. They will show them what to do and how to do it. They will give needed information, advise, admonish, supervise, direct, bring pressure to bear, and otherwise reinforce the weaker understanding and wills of the children in the latter's holding as well as they can to those ways of civilized living which are appropriate to individuals of their situation and degree of maturity. The family, in large part, will be the custodian of all the social traditions, expectations, public opinion, and the like, which are so impelling in shaping the folkways, manners and customs, habitual modes of behavior, and the accompanying

valuations and attitudes. The family will provide the general standard of living—material, social, aesthetic, and intellectual—thus automatically providing the level of performance of the younger members.

There is no certainty as yet as to what the detailed functions are which should be performed by the members of the family. It is certain, however, that the responsibility of the family for the child's education, a portion of the total responsibility that cannot be delegated, is very large, and the number of things to be done are very numerous.

At the school the child or youth will have practice in carrying on many vital phases of human living. He will observe all of those aspects of reality which can be shown there, as for example in the laboratories, shops, and in the general life of the school; he will read relative to all sorts of things and happenings that make up the world, near and far, present and past; he will spend much time in listening to the presentation of such matters; he will converse with his juvenile and adult associates on a wide range and variety of stimulating and illuminating topics; he will give expression to his thinking in a variety of ways relative to things of worth; he will enter into sports and games; he will carry on his general physical living at the school in a wholesome environment and in a wholesome manner; in many cases, he will sing, listen to good music, play an instrument; in the school workroom he will construct things that are to be used in his work or play, and the like. We need not specify further. We are only trying here to enumerate a few examples which will show the nature of the "activity program" of the modern school. The activities to be guided at the school are only those life activities that *ought* to be going on even if schools did not exist. The schools are merely improved and economical social devices for providing the opportunities and other conditions for the complex activities which the families alone are mostly unable properly or sufficiently to provide.

Now, this program of living at the school is not primarily something to be taught; it is rather a thing to be lived. So far as it is a thing to be learned, it is simply high-grade living that is to be learned. And this is learned by practising it. Any methods that the teacher will employ are only for guiding the current practice. The methods of greatest moment will have as their purpose: (1) to awaken interest in things and in the behavior that relates to those things; (2) to set motives into operation; (3) to awaken a sense of responsibility for behavior that is individually and socially wholesome; and (4) so to manage and supervise the pupil's behavior as to get it self-planned and self-directed by the pupils with the least possible amount of teacher direction consistent with getting things properly done.

Functional education is calling for a greatly changed balance of emphasis in our methodological theory. Most books of method have been written with the arbitrary, teacher-planned, teacher-directed, school-tested lesson training in mind. So far as such theory has been scientifically validated, it will continue to serve us for guidance; but in interpretation and application, much of it calls for reorganization and restatement in the light of changing educational conceptions and procedures.

Any such statement of the nature of functional education seems at present to be widely misunderstood. The chief reason for this lack of understanding is that the profession has not yet developed any clear and definite conception as to the nature of high-grade human living. It does not yet see living of a properly human type as consisting largely of, let us say, reading that illumines all the world and all ages; of a continuity throughout life of viewing the world through the eyes of science, history, and literature; of the thrilling vision that men art as its medium; of conversation and discussion that develops and clarifies the great problems with which mankind is confronted; of participation in a virile, impelling, and re-

sponsible public opinion, and other similar matters of the intellectual, aesthetic, and social levels. Our profession, strange to say, seems to overlook these types of activity as proper portions of normal human existence; to regard them as academic and alien importations appropriate only to the few, and to them only in their exalted moments. In this attitude it seems that there is confession that education has never yet been able to bring about high-grade human living on the part of the masses of the population. To date we have made them literate. This is an important first step. Now they need to be humanized. Our profession needs first to know of what humanization consists. It seems that ordinarily we conceive the term "human living" as referring only to the simple miscellaneous activities of eating and drinking, playing and working, gossip and trivialities, and the other things that constitute the petty lives of petty men. It is probable that the greatest single need of our profession today is a clarified understanding of the activities that constitute the continuity of worthy and wholesome human living at all age levels.

It is ordinarily felt that if education is to consist only of practice in the behavior that constitutes the good life, it will omit much that is needful. That is to assume that there are needful things that do not enter into an elevated type of human living; things needful that would not get a proper amount of practice if left to such a plan. But if they do not enter into human existence, what is a proper amount of practice? If they are such alien things, how can they be needful? On the other hand, if they are really needful, must they not automatically enter into any current living that is genuine, balanced, and wholesome?

But let us continue our enumeration at least one step further. We have said that the continuity of behavior is to be conditioned by the family and by the school. Let us note that it is also conditioned by a great number and variety of the agencies and institutions that constitute the general society: the church, motion pictures, public parks

and playgrounds, bathing beaches, dance halls, the world of work, the health department, police department, advertising, newspapers, radio, public library—to enumerate a few of them. Each of these social agencies bears responsibility for a portion of the conditioning of the lives of all persons of the community, which includes among others the children and youths. As these agencies condition behavior they are guiding it, and thus are educating in the exact sense of the term as used by our functional education. Speaking quite soberly and literally, they are effecting a large part of the actual education of the young people. They bear, therefore, a share of responsibility for the education of the young people. Their methods of procedure in carrying on their work of influencing the activities of the younger generation may be good, bad, or indifferent for the purpose. Whether they recognize it or not, they bear responsibility for finding and supplying socially good and wholesome methods.

To one who sees the administration of education as only the administration of schooling, the preceding statement will appear too absurd for serious consideration. Yet we recommend that it be seriously considered even by those who are going to confine their labors to the administration of schools. They will discover that, as they bring the schools genuinely to serve the social needs, there must be cooperative effort on the part of all elements of the general community life. The sociological view of these matters may appear absurd merely because it is yet unfamiliar and the various factors are not yet seen in completeness and in their relation to each other.

With the functional education, educational sociology is destined to come into its own. It is a late arrival simply because the older traditional education was, and still is, mostly oblivious of its social responsibilities and of the sociological setting and substance of the educative process. The textbooks in geography, history, science, algebra, grammar, Latin, English, and the like, could be written

by scholarly specialists in the subjects with little knowledge of society in general, or the life of the young people in that society. These textbooks could be taught by teachers quite apart from the social milieu. The latter need not be utilized or coöperated with. It may be important mainly in that it is a disturbing influence, presenting distractions that prevent the children's spending enough out-of-school time in the study of their books.

But with our functional education, the objective is life in society—a continuity of behavior which runs through seventy years. The process is the practice of life in society—whether at play, at work, at home, at school, at church, or otherwise. The process is guided by taking in hand the sociological influences and so controlling them as to bring about the desired types of influence. In other words, methods must mainly be the ways of controlling social influences so that they will guide in wholesome and in normal ways the activities of young people.

THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

CHARLES L. ROBBINS

This paper for THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY assumes that the educational sociologist is interested in such matters as how education (especially schooling) is affected by social institutions and processes, by culture as it exists in a given environment (culture including more than institutions and processes), and by values as they appear as a part of that culture; that he is also interested in the bearings of education upon social institutions, processes, and values. Details of method, which would be of interest to the classroom teacher, will be neglected in order that attention may be centered upon matters of greater interest to the readers of this magazine. This paper deals with the social and educational problems that arise when an effort is made to combine the necessity of individual mastery of subject matter with the fact of an existing group situation. Details of technique and discussion of psychological considerations (however important in the classroom) are omitted as irrelevant to a presentation for this journal.

The socialized recitation is the result of recognizing certain social facts and of trying to make those facts significant in the educative process. The recognition of social facts may be seen in a brief statement of the development of the teaching-learning process. In its simplest form the learning situation is about as follows. One person (the teacher) knows something which another person (the pupil) desires to learn. The pupil puts himself into the hands of the teacher and does what he is told to do. One individual deals with another individual in the process of imparting subject matter. With the rise of schools it

seemed economical to have the teacher deal with groups of pupils organized in classes. But the old individualistic interpretation of the situation persisted and still persists. The teacher is regarded as dealing with a series (not a group) of individual pupils—who may or may not desire to become learners. This interpretation persists in spite of the fact that as soon as a few children are assembled they become more than an aggregation of separate entities. Relationships are established, social processes are carried on, and a social environment is created. The teacher may in blindness still attempt to deal with each pupil as an individual—as the music teacher deals with the child who comes to his studio for individual instruction; but the group situation actually exists whether it is recognized or not. Each pupil must still learn for himself; but he learns as one of a group, not as a Heifetz receiving individual instruction from an Auer.

Whenever the class system is used, certain perplexities arise. The real individual is likely to be lost in the crowd or hidden behind a mythical average pupil. What can be done in order that each may work according to his capacity and receive according to his need? Attempts to answer this question have led to plans for the individualization of instruction. A further perplexity grows out of the fact that the class may in effect be banded together to resist learning or to keep the amount of work done at a minimum. How can individual or social stimulus overcome this evil? The answer has usually been individual rewards and punishments. Occasionally, especially recently, attempts have been made to develop a group spirit that will destroy both individual and group slackness, laziness, and lack of interest. This, whatever its name, is some form of the socialized recitation. Still another perplexity arises from the fact that the presence of others may distract attention from the principal work at hand. The problem then is to overcome such distraction as far as possible and to substitute for it a social pressure that will be hostile

to interference with work. Here again we find the socialized recitation used as an attempted solution.

The socialized recitation, then, has grown out of a recognition of certain social facts and the belief that the conditions actually present in class work demand an attempt (1) to get rid of the fiction that each member of a group is an isolated individual and (2) to make the most of the social situation which is always present.

It must be admitted that the term "socialized recitation" is unfortunate. It leads to the inference that a process (reciting) is actually socialized, when in reality class activities (whether reciting or doing any other kind of work) are being used in an attempt to aid in the socializing of all the members of the group—even including the teacher. The past participle might properly be replaced by the present, and the term "recitation" by "activities." But since the name of the process, however lacking in exactness, has come into general use, it is futile to suggest a new terminology. What is said here is merely for the sake of making it clear that the words do not mean what they seem to mean—any more than "newspaper" is to be understood in its original sense.

All schooling is ostensibly for the sake of socializing pupils in some way or other through the use of accumulated culture. The subject matter of any field of learning is placed in our schools because of the belief of some one (past or present) who saw in it a means of helping learners fit more satisfactorily into the society in which they lived and were to live. The purpose in teaching arithmetic, spelling, history, foreign language, or any other subject is commonly understood as having a social justification. That justification is the power of the subject matter to aid the learner in taking his proper part in the activities of the various groups of which he becomes a member.

The socialized recitation is similar in purpose. But it implies a more comprehensive view of the possibilities of socialization. Its purpose is to socialize not merely

through what is commonly thought of as subject matter but also through the activities which are necessary or possible in connection with the mastery of that material. It aims to take advantage of the total situation that exists when pupils are associated in classes.

It may be remarked parenthetically that this statement of purpose implies a conception of the learning process quite at variance with that of individual instruction. Individual instruction, as ordinarily conceived, leads to the belief that classes are a necessary evil, to be avoided as much as possible. The socialized recitation idea accepts classes as an added opportunity to carry on the essential work of education—socialization in connection with individual development. The one emphasizes individual achievement—an excellent thing; the other places no less stress upon mastery of subject matter, but adds an emphasis upon such social values as the feeling of genuine class unity, good will, common purposes, cooperation, and responsibility to class and to school instead of to teacher alone.

As the socialized recitation has developed, three types have appeared: the informal group, the class imitative of some institution of adult society, and the definitely organized self-directing group.

The informal group approximates a friendly group engaged in the pursuit of almost any matter of interest. The center of activities is the work which the pupils are attempting to accomplish; and it is the nature of this work which determines any organization patterns which may evolve. As in any informal group, embryonic organization appears. There may be the leader of discussion with a number of assistants who emerge as the discussion proceeds. Division may appear as opinions differ. Grouping and regrouping may take place. As need arises various members of the group may be delegated to obtain information, to make record of proceedings, or to render any kind of service. But all these embryonic forms of organization

are ephemeral. Duties shift from person to person and corresponding phases of organization crystallize and deliquesce. In the background is the teacher; but his function is not to quiz the pupils for the purpose of finding out how much and how well they have studied a cut-and-dried assignment, but rather to stimulate to fruitful activity, to see that the process of socialization does not degenerate into activities that are meaningless or antisocial. Without such guidance, a group of pupils would, as is often the case in the Congress of the United States or a faculty meeting, become a rudderless ship blown here and there by varying winds of interest.

The imitative group foregoes the freedom of the informal group for the sake of securing the efficiency which definite organization provides or for the purpose of learning the techniques of some social institution. When a class in civics is organized as a board of aldermen, for example, the purpose is to make the study of a certain phase of subject matter more vital than could be possible through ordinary class-routine. But it is also possible to have an organization imitating some institution for the purpose of preventing things from flying at loose ends—as they may tend to do when there is no definite organization. In this case, the form of organization is chosen not because it is a part of the subject matter to be mastered, but because it promises aid in the work of handling whatever is being studied. Obviously the two ideas can be combined. The organization of a scientific society or a literary club may be of assistance in promoting efficiency in class activities without providing any details of subject matter in the fields of science or literature. On the other hand, imitation of the national House of Representatives may combine learning about the functions and activities of that body with concomitant learning about various national problems. The essential characteristic of this form of socialized recitation is its imitation of some organization in actual existence in adult life.

The self-directing group, the third form of organization, may create machinery like nothing else in the world, or may more probably modify some known group or institution. The essential thing is that the members of the class consciously attempt to make plans for their own organization and work. Self-direction is a relative term which may vary in amount from very little to very much. In a public school the amount may be great in such matters as actual form of organization and details of procedure while practically nonexistent in the selection of subject matter and determination of satisfactory standards of mastery. In some private schools, it is possible (whether wise or not) to permit pupils to select what they shall study, to determine how long they shall pursue it, and to set up their own standards.

In view of the fact that one of the chief functions of the school is to help pupils to develop into that maturity which is marked by the possibility of self-direction, it seems clear that each of these three forms of class organization (or any other phase of school management) ought to attempt to encourage pupil initiative and responsibility. Whether these qualities are conceived of as self-direction or not is immaterial.

In spite of the value of organization, teachers should continually remind themselves of the good advice, "Place not your trust in machinery." As history shows that the formation of a republican form of government does not always mean the absence of real autocracy, so classroom experience teaches the folly of believing that any type of socialized recitation is sure to promote genuine socialization.

Since the process of socializing the individual is so obviously a function of the socialized recitation, nothing will be said of it here. There are, however, numerous subsidiary processes which are present, some of which are in danger of being overlooked in a class group just as they often are in the greater society. The following few will

be presented briefly; creation of social values (attitudes, rules) loosely corresponding to the evolution of culture in the large groups; social opposition and coöperation; and equalization of opportunity.

The usual concept of the class group limits it to a number of persons who are engaged in acquiring an already developed culture. This view is too narrow. Interwoven with this process of acquisition is a process of creation which proceeds whether it is recognized or not. Whatever the subject studied, there will inevitably emerge: attitudes towards learning and towards individuals including the teacher; rules of procedure, covert or open; and standards of value, often having little connection with the course of study. Such matters as these represent genuine social values in the minds of the pupils. Too often in the traditional type of school they are badly perverted. Attitudes develop in such a way as to interfere with the proper operation of the school as a genuine social institution—that is, an institution created for the welfare of society. The rules of procedure which the pupils actually practice are too often designed to represent the "strike on the job." Standards of value are frequently very different from those which parents hope that their children are building up. Thus to outwit the teacher comes to have more worth than doing good honest work. Social approval within the class goes to the mischief-maker rather than to the good student.

In the socialized recitation, if it is properly understood by teacher and pupils, the process of creating attitudes, rules, values must have a different background and a different development. The concept of group and individual welfare must stand to the fore, must replace the ancient belief that a pupil's chief duty is to do as little work as possible and cause the teacher as much worry and embarrassment as possible. The relationship between subject matter and the creation of a good or a bad set of values is of very great importance. Undoubtedly it is often true that the culture chosen for transmission to the

oncoming generation tends to cause the development of a set of attitudes, rules, and values designed to meet lack of interestingness in content with interest in something else. But even in this deplorable situation it is the function of the teacher to guide into a course of development that will, in the long run, turn out to be social rather than anti-social. The socialized recitation has value in that it directs attention to the problem and provides a kind of organization which simplifies the attack.

In any sort of class, whether conducted by the Hoosier schoolmaster, the devotee of the individual instruction idea, or the believer in the socialized recitation, opposition and cooperation are almost certain to be easily noticeable. To use these processes for the promotion of educational ends is the difficult problem of every teacher who realizes the larger aspects of his work. In the socialized recitation, it becomes the function of the group (not of the teacher alone) to learn to handle the problems that arise from the situations which inevitably arise. Whatever the reasons for opposition, whether they be personal dislike, disagreement in regard to fact or plans of procedure, or perverse desire to be disagreeable, it is important that pupils learn to oppose without bitterness. They need also to acquire the art of using opposition in the attempt to get at the truth and to repress the desire to carry opposition through conflict to victory. Similarly, in the case of cooperation it is necessary to master the art of working together when that process is appropriate and to learn to handle those situations which demand individual effort instead of group activity and mutual helpfulness. Out of childish dislikes which often lead to unreasonable opposition and friendships which promote illegitimate cooperation, the socialized recitation must develop a state of mind which will put both opposition and cooperation in their proper places.

Equalization of opportunity is a process which seems "contrary to nature." It certainly is not characteristic of the struggle for existence among plants and animals. It

is hard to find in the rivalries of business organizations and other competing groups. But it is an essential phase of education as we conceive education in this country. Various studies have shown that in the classroom the aggressive few monopolize activities while the modest and backward many "sit as dumb for want of words." The mere inauguration of the socialized recitation is no remedy for this evil. In fact, without great care on the part of the teacher and the members of the class, conditions are likely to be made worse instead of better.

The educational sociologist, looking at the socialized recitation, sees a group of social and educational problems which confront the teacher and the class who enter into a whole-hearted effort to make a success of the method. A mere enumeration of a few of these problems will serve to concentrate attention upon the difficulties, dangers, and opportunities involved. As shown in this paper, the following are continually and insistently demanding solution:

1. How to fit social relationships and processes into purposive education
2. How to socialize and also individualize through class activities
3. How to adapt organization to purpose—structure to function
4. How to socialize through both mastery of course of study and activities which are designed to promote that mastery
5. How to develop a sense of social values together with the necessary attitudes and behavior patterns
6. How to harness opposition and cooperation together;
7. How to equalize opportunity without limiting the very capable or overloading the less capable
8. How to provide for carry-over from class work into other activities

A NOTE ON REACTIONS TO A PROPOSED SOCIAL CHANGE

DONALD SNEDDEN

Walter Duranty, writing in the *New York Times* of September 1, 1929, reports that in Soviet Russia the Council of Commissars issued a decree, to go into effect October 1, 1929, providing that an "unbroken working-week" system with 360 working days in the year shall be adopted throughout the country by all state and coöperative administrations, factories, and other enterprises. "As no worker or employee will have more days or hours of labor than heretofore, the new system means the introduction of a series of shifts, each getting a weekly holiday period at different times. It is stated, however, that the holiday period shall be constant throughout the year—that is, Worker A will have, say, Wednesday afternoons and Thursday free each week; Worker B, Thursday afternoon and Friday, and so on.

"When one considers that the system is to be applied to schools and all other educational establishments, it is easy to realize what enormous changes it will bring about." Mr. Duranty quotes a *Pravda* editorial which states that this plan will reduce unemployment by upwards of 25 per cent, and will bring about a corresponding increase in national production.

Undoubtedly an unbroken working week, or a rotation of vacation periods, would have real economic advantages. But to consider the economic advantages without weighing the other factors that would naturally affect such a plan would be to look only at a part of the involved picture. It is not to be inferred that this writer believes the Council of Commissars were neglectful of the other factors. The study below is an attempt to weigh a few of them.

At Harvard University Summer School in 1929, the writer was impressed with the difficulties of travel and recreation during the regular week-end period. Neighboring beaches and recreation centers were uncomfortably crowded, and to go farther from the centers of the metropolitan area was to brave severe conditions of traffic congestion on highways, trains, and boats. The same situation obtains in greater or less degree at any urban institution during the summer.

The summer school, it might be presumed, is a relatively self-centered group, in the sense that its faculty and students associate, in large measure, with fellow faculty and students; it is a relatively intelligent group; it is a relatively nonreligious group (in nonsectarian and liberal institutions). Therefore, a proposal to change, for this group, the week-end vacation period from the traditional Saturday and Sunday to a mid-week period, say Tuesday and Wednesday, might possibly meet with more favor than in most other social groups.

It was never seriously proposed to make this change, but the following questionnaire was submitted to students (enrolled in classes in education) and after they were filled out they were returned unsigned. The number returning the questionnaire was 237. Only the percentages replying in each manner (not the number of cases) are inserted in a reproduction of the questionnaire form

SUMMER SCHOOL WEEK-ENDS

It is *not* proposed to alter the Harvard Summer School schedule. An expression of student and faculty opinion is being sought for its own sake. You do not need to sign your name to this paper, but will you please consider carefully the following questions and check your reactions to them. Take the paper home with you tonight and bring it, filled out, to class tomorrow.

	Not		
	Yes	No	Answering
1. For various reasons I should prefer having week-ends on Tuesday and Wednesday of each week (with Saturday and Sunday classes—the Sunday classes being in the afternoon) to the present system	11	86	4

	Not		
	Yes	No	Answering
2. During this Summer School I have made frequent or occasional week-end trips out of Boston or Cambridge....	70	25	4
3. During this summer I have frequently or occasionally attended Sunday morning church	51	48	0
4. I have religious objections to classes on Sunday afternoons.....	29	69	2
5. I have frequently or occasionally studied on Sunday afternoons (either here or at any other school) . . .	87	7	3
6. I have a car, or some use of a car, at this Summer School.....	59	39	2
7. I feel that "mid-week week-ends" would interfere with my association with my nonsummer-school friends to such an extent as to render such a plan more undesirable than desirable.. . . .	62	33	5
8. Other things being equal, I would have attended the Summer School at Harvard this summer if it had been on a mid-week week-end schedule... ..	59	31	8
9. While attending the Summer School I am living at home.....	47	53	0

It will be noted that none of the arguments either for or against have been extensively developed in the above questions. It is expected that each individual will develop them as they apply to himself by his own consideration. The following list may be suggestive.

For Mid-week

1. Less traffic on the roads
2. Trains and boats less crowded.
3. Any week-end objective (resorts, etc.) would be less crowded.
4. It would in a very small way relieve the congestion for those who must take their week-ends at the ordinary time.
5. Many places now "impossible" on Sundays would be available during the week (as Revere Beach).

Against Mid-week

1. Sunday is a holy day
2. Friends do not have holiday, in the middle of the week
3. People like to go places when the crowds are going
4. It would be hard to create a work atmosphere at school on Saturday and Sunday.
5. It is opposed to the general tradition of this country.

Notes:

The percentages do not all add to 100 as decimals are carried correctly only to the second place.

The column headed "Not Answering" did not appear on the questionnaire. It is inserted in the results to complete the record.

Question 9 was by carelessness not on the questionnaire. The percentages here figured are from a random sample of 300 students' registration cards. They are probably sufficiently like the figures that would have been obtained to be useful for study.

The main findings speak for themselves. Only a little over one tenth of the students would favor the change. Seven tenths of the students had made frequent or occasional week-end trips during the summer, and about six tenths had an automobile, or some use of one. About half of the students were living at home; *i.e.*, were residents close enough to Boston to have the same home and summer-school address. Nearly three tenths of the students had religious objections to classes on Sunday afternoons and about one half of them had been to church during this summer period. Nearly nine tenths had at some time or other studied on Sunday afternoons. About six tenths thought that "mid-week week-ends" would interfere with their associations with their friends—and I believe that we may assume that "family" is included. (One student added to his response the apparently cogent argument that "mid-week week-ends" would "obviate the necessity for keeping up family relationships during the too brief interval of Summer School.") About one third felt so strongly opposed to the plan that they stated that they would not have attended this Summer School, other things being equal, had the mid-week plan been the schedule.

A few special comparisons are here presented between the group of 79 students who, in answer to question 8, said they would *not* have attended the Summer School had the "mid-week week-end" plan been in force, and the 140

who indicated that, whether or not they disapproved of the plan, they would have attended anyway. Since the students answering this questionnaire were students in education classes, the summer-school work that they were taking may be considered, for practically all of them, as directly professional work. The group who would have foregone this professional training (or, of course, gone elsewhere for it) may be assumed to represent the strongest feeling in opposition to the plan. The two groups above indicated will be called the "Unfavorable" and the "Favorable" groups.

		Per Cent		
		Yes	No	Not Answered
Had taken week-end trips	of Unfavorable	68	29	3
	of Favorable	74	22	4
Had a car.....	of Unfavorable	54	44	1
	of Favorable	61	38	1
Thought the plan would interfere with friendships...	of Unfavorable	72	19	9
	of Favorable	59	39	1
Had religious objections....	of Unfavorable	53	44	1
	of Favorable	14	84	3

The difference in the percentages of "yes" responses for the two groups are not all of the same magnitude or reliability. Six per cent more of the favorable group had taken week-end trips and the chances are about five to one that this indicates a real difference. Seven per cent more of the favorable group owned cars and the chances are again about five to one that the difference is real. Thirteen per cent more of the unfavorable group thought their friendships would be hampered, and the chances are about twenty-four to one that the difference is real. It is, however, in the matter of religious objection that we find the largest difference, 39 per cent, and the greatest certainty that the difference is real. The probability is practically infinite that the difference is not due to statistical chance.

It is interesting to know that while the largest number (148) of all the subjects seemed to think that the scheme

would be invalid for them because of friendship, only 57 of these 148, or 39 per cent, definitely would not have attended the Summer School under the mid-week schedule, while 42 or 62 per cent of the 68 people who had religious objections would not have attended.

This would seem to indicate that general objection to the plan is based more often on difficulties of association with friends, but is based more "strongly" (in cases where it operates) on religious objection. It is realized that there are numerous other factors not here discussed.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO METHODS OF LEARNING AND TEACHING¹

BENJAMIN FLOYD STALCUP

The educational sociologist has a many-sided interest in education in a democratic society. The present-day tendency is to divorce our educational program from the formal, classical, aristocratic dominance of the past, in which the emphasis was chiefly upon knowledge as the end of education. The new emphasis is upon social education. Ancient society was aristocratic and monarchical and the educational system was set up by the few for the few. But today with the democratic ideal and practice before us well may the objective and practice be set up in terms of democracy. The national aims of a state dictate the policies of the system of education.

The student of social education finds himself interested in all the educative agencies and processes, both within and without the school. It is only recently that the educator has discovered democracy. He has likewise discovered that individuals possessed of a universal human social tendency to form societies and live together tend to educate themselves through their own direct and indirect relationships and activities. The writer contends that if modern education is to be democratic it must be based upon: first, practice in democratic living; and, second, that the principles of society building and social evolution need to be studied in order to discover the connection between the social process and the learning and educative processes. On the conception of this relationship of the social and educative processes rests the true basis of learning and teaching. While these bases are psychological, they are at the same time sociological. The individual does not have experience or behave apart from things and indi-

¹The material of this chapter will become a part of a proposed book by the author in collaboration with Professor E. George Payne.

viduals. Meaning, as attached to things—material and physical—as well as to individuals, is the product of the cultural evolution of the experience or behavior of the human race. Experience is not a body of knowledge separate and apart from human beings.

The writer is concerned, in this discussion, with the setting up of some underlying theses or assumptions as basic to the sociological approach to method. With the hope of stimulating further discussion in this field, these theses are set up somewhat categorically with a minimum of exposition herein. No claim is made that these theses are original or that they have been logically arranged. Some claim may be made for the pioneer attempt to bring them together as offering a foundation for the social approach to methods of learning and teaching. In the development of a new science, one of the first phases is formulation of the general working hypothesis for experimentation and scientific research.

General acknowledgment is herein made to two great teachers and two writers who have influenced the thinking of the writer. The teachers are Franklin Bobbitt and F. George Payne, and the writers are John Dewey and Charles Ellwood.

THE UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS

I. The human social processes are the basis of learning and education.

The human social process is the sum of the mutually adoptive relationships of individuals. This is a constant process in all the activities of group or societal life. The needs of individuals in a democratic life are met by and through the universal human social tendency to form societies for the selection of leaders and the solving of the problems inherent to these needs. This is the social process in action—a continuous ongoing function. It is dynamic. It changes as the needs change. Societies come and go, but the fundamental process remains. The learning aspect of this process is the indirect, incidental, unplanned, non-conscious experience acquired by the individual in and

through living his life. A very large part of the experience of every individual is a residuum of naïve participation in a multitude of activities in the numerous groups of which he is a part. Suggestion and imitation are significant motive factors in this kind of experience. A study of the evolution of the folkways reveals that the mores are thus partially derived or developed. The other aspect of the social process is the consciously directed experience of the individual. To hasten change or progress in the group, that is, to aid the individual to acquire certain fixed or definite types of cultural or behavior patterns, conscious planning enters in the form of some kind of leadership; as for instance, in family life, the school, or civic life. This is education—a leading out to some progressive and moving goal fundamental in the life of the group. In the social scheme, infancy and apprenticeship are supplanted by the more carefully designed goals of institutional practice and living. Teaching is thus to be thought of as the directed social process.

II. Social education can take place only in a social environment.

Another way of stating the same assumption relative to the school is by the oft-quoted statement of Dewey that a school should be a "society in miniature." A group of individuals *en masse*, as thirty or forty boys and girls in a classroom under our present practice today, is much like a "social vacuum." Freedom of association and communication is severed under most of our schoolroom arrangement. The miniature society conception of the school can only mean a social environment in which the fundamental principles of a society prevail.

Activity on the level of ability of the child, motivated by an interest in the realities of the common life and by sharing in the responsibilities and, through participation, meaningful experiences or behavior is the social outcome. Sever the laws of association and communication and you create a vacuum; give these forces free play under guidance and a stimulating social environment is developed.

III. *What one learns and the way one learns individually or collectively are but different and related aspects of the same learning or educative process.*

The content of experience or behavior, the organization and method of acquiring experiences are inherent and supplementary phases of a progressively developing and integrating personality. The individual grows through the progressive reconstruction of this becoming or oncoming process or new experiencing. This process is not to be thought of as a constant. Interest and social stimulation will vary with the situations confronting the individual. Further, the problems growing out of the social needs will not offer the same challenge, thus the purposing will be of different levels of intensity. This conception of the educative process leaves behind the older dualism of content and method. Method becomes an integral part of the total situation modifying the behavior or experience of the becoming personality.

IV. *The types of experiencing or the modes of behavior of the individual or the group which gives satisfaction, pleasure, and enjoyment become the bases of permanent interests and values.*

The intellectual pursuits and the quality and the flavor of the emotional and spiritual life of the individual are the outcome of the satisfying life experiences. The quest for achievement and the pursuit of happiness in themselves become enveloping phenomena, invigorating the individual with increasing enjoyment and satisfaction. Enjoyment may be thought of as both the means and end product. The converse of satisfaction and enjoyment are dissatisfaction and annoyance. These may easily become negative and disillusioning to the individual.

V. *Knowledge relates to reality.*

Knowledge, to be meaningful, effective, and useful in the experience or behavior, must be seen in its relationship to each new situation. Knowledge separated or isolated from method becomes sterile. Cold storage facts may never have any functional meaning for the individual. "Knowl-

edge is power" only as it functions in the reconstructed experience of the individual. Further, it is contended that knowledge, ideals, attitudes, and appreciations become fruitful, compelling, and permanent when motivated by social stimulation and interaction.

VI. Social conflict as a social force or process has not been fully recognized by the school.

Social struggle is the life of the individual and the group. Whatever the origin, social struggle exists upon two levels: (a) Competition is the struggle for wealth or economic place in society—it tends to be impersonal; (b) the other level is conflict and is concerned with the struggle for social status. However you may define conflict, some of its manifestations are clear. The writer would define conflict as the result of, or conditioned by, the personal and social divergences of individuals and groups; *i.e.*, the difference in the cultural patterns possessed by individuals and groups. Different cultural environments produce different cultural patterns of behavior or standards of action. It thus becomes easy to understand why there may be friction or opposition between the white and colored races, between the different religious sects, or between the German and the French nations. All conflict is not necessarily bad. It becomes destructive when the method of resolving is revengeful, hostile, and brutal; *i.e.*, when one individual, party, sect, or group tries to destroy the other. The quality and quantity of conflict situations depend upon the type or types of individuals in the group, whether the group be small or large. The greater the heterogeneity of the group, the greater will be the potential conflicts; the converse of this is true; that is, the more homogeneous groups will be free from conflict. This problem of social conflict raises a major problem of resolving conflicts in the United States. "America is a melting pot of races." Yes, but without an amalgam that has as yet resolved or melted the raw material into a harmonious, integrated social union. But what of the method? The social experimenters are recommending: first, the elimination of the hostile practice

and, second, the substitution of the friendly process of the discussion method which leads to understanding, toleration, and coöperation. And thus from conflict we advance through coöperation.

VII. *The growing complexity of our social life has led to an increasing specialization of the functions of individuals in their occupational and social relations which, in turn, increases the degree of interdependency of individuals and groups, each upon the other.*

In brief, as social function increases, social interdependencies advance. This complexity of our environment sets up at least two social needs: first, purposeful cooperative activity and endeavor and, second, the recognition of the sharing of the social responsibility resulting from the spread and diversity of social functions. It may be readily observed that in the solving of the problems of democracy and the elimination of conflicts of society, types of planned cooperation shall be substituted for spontaneous cooperation that has passed with the simple pioneer life of the older order. Coöperation follows a recognition on the part of individuals of their dependence each upon the other. Coöperation is good for individuals. It heightens the spiritual value of life. It is the enveloping factor of the socializing process. It thus becomes the great resolvent for conflict. It is method; *i.e.*, a way of experiencing together the common life of the group of society. But the processes of conflict and cooperation cannot be separated from each other; neither can they—each or both—be separated from the third process of leadership and followership.

VIII. *Leadership and followership are relationships of personal and social control through social stimulation and collective action.*

The school has been tardy in its recognition of the need of training in leadership and intelligent followership. The school has probably labored under the notion that the leader is born and not made. The conception that the leader is made and not born is gaining recognition through

observation and experimentation in the selection of leaders. Democracy possesses its own latent leadership. The school, in recognition of the need of more constructive leadership, should give opportunity for and training in leadership throughout the full range of its activities. Not all individuals desire to lead, but the tendency to be a leader should find expression through participation and shared responsibility. The practice of leading makes the leader. As already indicated, the other aspect of the relationship is the follower. Followership that is intelligent and knows whom to follow and when to follow is as fundamental as leadership. Each does not exist without the other. The latent, unused, uninformed energy of the group is the fruitful ground for the demagogue. An intelligent populace will scorn the selfish leader.

IX. The recognition of the principle of individual differences carries with it the implication that its counterpart shall be recognized; namely, some basis for homogeneous groupings.

The human social tendency of individuals to form societies or groups already referred to is predicated upon or grows out of certain levels of common interests or consciousness of kind. Color, creed, race, nationality, types of training, social function, social interest, art, politics, as well as a legion of other types of classification or categories become the basis of social groupings among adults. Since a social tendency of this kind is only manifest in the more democratic forms of national groups, how could the objection that homogeneous groupings are undemocratic have any social validity? The writer believes that intelligence testing as a basis for homogeneous grouping is but one of the social bases that may find a useful place in the discovery of common levels of social organization in school procedure. Homogeneous groups of some type are fundamentally necessary to the stimulation of freer expression, a more spontaneous interest, more highly motivated activity, and a more wholesome participation in the group or society. The school or class should be conceived

of as more than the sum of the individuals composing it.
X. *The "school" society or societies possess the potential elements of social control in its own membership and processes.*

Personal and external authority as bases of school control have no place, per se, in an evolving democratic society. Desirable personal and social standards should be built up within the group or society and not imposed from without. The school organization, the classes, the homeroom, the assembly, as well as the so-called extracurricular activities offer a wide range of opportunity for training in social control. In passing it should be noted that in the social conception there are no extra activities. All the activities of the school child enter into the whole of the educative process.

XI. *The significant and meaningful changes in the behavior or experiences in the conscious life of the individual as group come with the grappling with social and social problems.*

This does not signify that the individual child or youth is always conscious of the end product of his experiencing. This process does not always imply order and regular guidance leading or directing the activity. Leadership, there will be, but it will be mainly the leadership of the group of the group life itself. In this process knowledge for social useful and functional. In fact, it is necessary for the understanding of the issue and the resolving of the problem. Personality traits and qualities, and social attitudes and values, public or group opinion, evolve out of such situations. From this stage of socialization the process leads on into the next, namely, the formation of group consciousness.

XII. *Small-group consciousness shall be the basis of larger group consciousness.*

The experiencing or behavior of the individual has two aspects or phases, the first being personally directed and the other that of socialization. A complete picture of the individual as a person is fashioned out of the activity

ties and relationship of his membership in the social groups through which he passes from childhood to adulthood. The dynamic process of developing personality inducts the individual into membership in the group. The psychological process of becoming a person is the first phase of the social process, the second phase being that of group or social consciousness. The "we feeling" is the feeling of membership in the group. This feeling is developed first in the smaller primary groups of which the individual is a member. The individual passes on in his development into an increasing number of group relationships. The type and function of these groups often becomes conflicting. The problem of adjustment becomes one of harmonizing and focusing his loyalties into an integrated personality on the one hand, and on the other, into a good member of the groups, both large and small. The intra-group consciousness fuses with the extra-group consciousness. Translated into citizenship, the good citizen of a city becomes the good citizen of the State, and so on into a feeling of world citizenship. The small-group feeling fuses with the larger and the practice of being a good member of one leads on into the other. Thus the process of socialization is dynamic, progressive, and expansive. The problem of the school is one of providing the types of social situations expressive of the interlocking, conflicting groups of which the child finds himself, but out of which wholesome personality and worthy group consciousness arise.

XIII. Socially conceived, there is a fundamental unity in the objective, content, method, and outcome of the social-educative process.

An example will suffice to make this clear. One of the cardinal objectives of education is good health. The content of the curriculum to achieve good health is the practice in good health. Method becomes the most satisfactory way of experiencing good health, and the social outcome of the practice of experiencing in healthful living is attained in physical well-being.

SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF PROJECT TEACHING

ELLSWORTH COLLINGS

It seems to me that Lowell has interpreted satisfying and worth-while life in these lines:

Every clod feels a stir of might,
An instinct within it reaches and towers,
And, groping blindly above it for light,
Climbs to a soul in grass and flowers

This urge to grow is a biological fact for, in the words of Lowell, "whether we look, or whether we listen, we hear life murmur, or see it glisten." It may be the songs of the birds, the sounds of the insects, or the glories of the fields. These varied activities on all sides of us are manifestations of the urge to grow, working itself out into the wonderful creations of life. The child is no exception. It is rather a beautiful illustration of the creative urge. Purposeful activity is the very essence of child life. It may be, for instance, finding out something, constructing something, communicating something, competing in something, or perfecting something. In any event, the child's bent is to create, to make, to discover, to reach onwards, to grow. Its life is an endless chain of activities. Purposeful activity is, therefore, the creative urge working itself out into the many beautiful creations of life. It is life itself.

Purposeful activity is not only the very essence of satisfying and worth-while life, but it is through purposeful activity that things about us change, develop, and grow. The wild grapevine perhaps illustrates this fact clearly.¹ During the showery, sunny spring days the vine's seed sends forth straight, rapidly growing shoots with two branched tendrils at the end. These tendrils revolve slowly through the air, and when one touches an object, as a wire or a branch, it hooks itself about it and draws up in the form

¹C. H. Cooley, *The Social Process* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1916), p. 11.

of a spiral spring, pulling the shoot up after it. A shoot which thus gets hold grows rapidly and sends out more tendrils to repeat again the activity, until it has extended itself above the surrounding shrubbery and into the highest neighboring tree. The vine thus continues to change, develop, and grow, through the outcome of one activity ever "leading on" to another activity. The indisputable fact here is that it is through activity the vine changes, develops, and grows.

Child growth is essentially the same. It, too, changes, develops, and grows through purposeful activity. Study of the simple instance of Roly Poly reveals this fact quite clearly. Two changes in the child are apparent in this instance. The first change has to do with changes in the child's response. These changes involve change in the child's holding of the balls, bowling at the Roly Polys, making the triangle, keeping scores, etc. The second set of changes has to do with change in the child's drive. These changes involve change in the child's readiness to hold the balls in a particular way, bowl at the Roly Polys in a certain position, to record the scores at a particular time, etc. Since the changes in drives are projective, they lead the child on to further activity along the same or similar lines and consequently to more changes in response. It is in this fashion that the child grows. As the wild grapevine pulls itself up to higher levels by means of new tendrils, so does the child attain higher levels through changes in its drive and response.

The study of life about us reveals another important fact; namely, that the manifold activities on all sides of us are not separate, independent, unfolding entities but that each takes place in and through an environmental situation of some sort. Activity is the very essence of all living things, but not for one minute does it exist except by contact and interaction with surrounding conditions. The wild grapevine's activity reveals this fact. The warm fertile soil of the ravine sets into action the vine's tendency

to send out straight, rapidly growing shoots with two branched tendrils at the end. The air medium assists the activity of the tendrils to revolve about in search of some branch. This near-by branch discovered touches of the activity of the tendril to bend about it and to draw up in the form of a spiral spring. The shoot thus attached to the branch sets off again to grow rapidly and send forth more tendrils to repeat the series of activities. Indeed, in order to explain fully the part that the environmental situation plays in the vine's activity, it would be necessary to take other things into account, such as, for example, help or hindrance of neighboring vines, plants, etc., but these more noticeable ones serve to point out the significance of environmental stimuli in the vine's activity. Suffice to say its activity depends upon surrounding conditions at the time. And the case of the child's activity is no different. There are, in the instance of the Roly Poly activity, the balls, the triangle, the schoolroom, the score board, the ruler, the chalk, the rules of the game, the bowling lines, the children, the teacher, etc. This activity could not exist one second without this environmental situation. It depends solely upon surrounding conditions. Purposeful activity is not, in this sense, a separate, independent, unfolding affair. It takes place in every instance in and through an environmental situation of some kind. It cannot exist without surrounding conditions. It involves sharing of some kind in every instance.

It seems to me that the study of life about us sheds important light on social living. The first important fact is that living is the continuous pursuit of purposeful activity of some kind. There seems to be no exception to this finding, for purposeful activity of some sort is observable on all sides of us at all times. The second important fact is that change, development, and growth take place in and through purposeful activity. This, too, seems to be the rule of life. The third important fact is that purposeful activity always takes place in and through an environ-

mental situation. Life about us thus appears to be a form of social living which involves growth through the pursuit of differentiated activities, each dependent on others in some manner. The outstanding characteristics of this form of social living are along three well-defined lines. First, it is active. It provides opportunity for each individual to pursue activities along his own lines. Second, it is changeable. It involves continuous growth on the part of all individuals along their own lines. Third, it is social. It depends upon the cooperation of all in the pursuit of activities. Purposeful activity is, in this sense, the very foundation of social living; it is social living.

Since the school is an institution established by society for the purpose of enriching social living, it would seem in the light of the foregoing that its most consistent function would be to provide opportunity for boys and girls to pursue purposeful activities. Perhaps a brief description of a school founded upon this conception will indicate what such a school does for boys and girls. The curriculum of the Junior High School of the University of Oklahoma is organized entirely around the purposeful activities of the boys and girls of this school. The traditional school organization is completely ignored in every particular. The function of this school, we believe, is to enrich the present lives of the boys and girls of this school in their own time and in their own measure. We have excursion projects, or purposeful study of community problems, because investigation and exploration of their own and other people's environment is a normal phase of their expanding life. We have story projects, or purposeful communication through reading, story-telling, dramatization, singing, and writing, because at this age it is almost impossible to supply the demand for stories. Play projects are a vital part of the life of these boys and girls. The more vigorous and challenging the play, the more it appeals to them. Football, baseball, basketball, all forms of athletics are pursued by both boys and girls. And of course boys and girls like to

make things, hence our construction projects in wood, metal, leather, repair jobs, cooking, sewing, and the like. Finally, we have discovered that boys and girls of this age want to be highly proficient in particular activities, hence our skill projects in typewriting, handwriting, mechanical drawing, dancing, instrumental music, debating, public speaking, oratory, etc.

Boys and girls in this school pursue five different lines of projects. The first line is the Excursion Project. It involves purposes of boys and girls to find out something—to explore, to investigate, to discover. Its scope is wide. It includes, in the first place, purposeful study of civic activities. This includes the whole range of civic activities carried on in life outside of the school. In the second place, it includes purposeful study of industrial activities. This includes the whole field of industrial and vocational activities. In the third place, it includes purposeful study of natural phenomena. This includes the whole range of plant life, animal life, and earth and sky. The second line is the Story Project. It involves purposes of boys and girls to communicate something—to converse, to dramatize, to tell. Its scope is exceedingly broad. In the first place, it is not limited to any particular form of communication. It includes communication through writing, story-telling, dramatization, and reading. In the second place, it is not limited to any particular content of communication. It includes a wide range of stories in fiction, biography, history, fables, legends, outdoor life, poetry, drama, essays, travel, and industry. The third line is the Construction Project. It includes purposes of boys and girls to construct something—to make, to produce, to fashion. Its scope is wide. It includes purposeful construction in wood, metal, paper, textiles, leather, raffia, reed, rope, clay, paint, water colors, and foods. The fourth line is the Play Project. It includes purposes of boys and girls to compete in something—to win, to beat, to outdo. Its scope is broad. It includes purposeful study of a wide range of indoor and

outdoor games, sports, and contests. The fifth line is the Skill Project. It includes purposes of boys and girls to perfect something—to excel, to exceed, to be proficient. It includes purposeful study of a wide range of activities in manipulation, vocal expression, written expression, and muscular expression.

Our concern is not to teach subjects or to be guided by any course of study. Our sole aim is to help the boys and girls of this school to pursue their own activities better and more fruitfully. The content of the school activities is made up of those things that intrinsically function in carrying forward successfully the activities of the boys and girls at the time. The pupil's activity is not made a vehicle to teach the conventional school subjects. The conventional school subjects as such are ignored completely. The subject matter of these subjects is used only at such times as it functions genuinely in enabling boys and girls to realize better their own chosen purposes. And in such instance this material is selected and planned by the pupils at the time it functions in their activities. It is never planned from above and handed down to the pupils in the form of nicely prepared exercises. The curriculum, in other words, is made "on the spot" by boys and girls and the teacher in conference. The pupils choose, plan, execute, and judge their own results under the guidance of their teachers. They budget their own time. The daily schedule is of course extremely flexible.

The experiment has not progressed far enough to yield statistical results, but it may be significant to say that we do not propose to apply the conventional standardized tests solely to measure the amount of information and skill acquired by the boys and girls. We literally do not care whether or not a youngster can memorize a given algebraic formula, or a row of historical facts. What we want to know is how far has a school like the present one succeeded in changing the boys' and girls' conduct in their own "life acts." How much better can they initiate, choose,

understand their purposes, how much more intense and persistent is their drive, how much more skilled are they in initiating, choosing, and evaluating the means needed in realizing a given end, how much more thorough is their execution of plans, how much better is their initiation, evaluation, and choice of improvements in their own conduct, etc.? These points give us much concern, for it seems to us social living demands success along these lines. We feel that social life demands that boys and girls be able to initiate and choose fruitful purposes, find and learn the means necessary in the attainment of chosen purposes, execute the formulated plans effectively, and finally be able to judge successes and failures and provide means for improvement. We have been able to note improvements of boys and girls along these lines:

1. The pupils do well in their work. They take pride and joy in doing effectively the things they set out to do.

2. The pupils like their school. They spend hours in the library reading for the sake of the fun they derive from reading good books. Attendance is almost perfect. No disciplinary problems of any kind arise.

3. The pupils are optimistic. They are happy in their work. They think their school can be improved in many ways. They accept responsibility and meet failures with a determination to do better.

4. They are learning how to think. They are learning to base their thinking on reliable facts instead of their own prejudices. They often disagree with their teachers, but always because they consider that the facts they have gathered on a point justify such disagreement.

5. They are learning how to study. They know how to find material, how to interpret facts, how to assemble facts to prove points, and how to use materials.

6. They are learning how to work together. They are reaching a point where they are willing to consider what others have to say and do regarding things.

7. They are learning how to purpose. They are learn-

ing how to discriminate in their choice of purposes. They are reaching a point where they base their choice on the merits of a thing. Their range of purposes is widening.

8. They are learning how to formulate plans. They are learning how to select the necessary means for achieving their chosen purposes. They know where to find these means, and how to formulate them in a plan for use.

9. They are learning how to perform things effectively. They are learning how to use things—books, apparatus, materials—in attaining their chosen purpose.

10. They are learning how to discover successes and failures in their own work. They are reaching a point where they see some of their own mistakes and how to improve them.

We feel in conclusion that a school which sets boys and girls free to pursue purposes that have meaning and value to them, in the pursuit of which they gain power to initiate, to judge, to discriminate, to improve, and to press forward to ever expanding purposes is providing a basis for real growth and the acquisition of the real values of social living. Wise purposing, intelligent planning, effective execution, and critical judging seem to be of real value in social living. It is for this reason that we are concerned in making progress along these lines rather than along the conventional high-school subjects. When we view boys and girls in social life we feel obligated to afford them wise guidance in the pursuit of purposeful activities, for it is through such enterprises that they grow in the real values of social living.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of the JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed

BOYS' CLUB STUDY RESEARCH PROGRESS

The boys' club study of New York University which is being carried on under the auspices of the department of educational sociology and under the direction of Frederic M. Thrasher, associate professor of educational sociology, has completed the original three-year period allotted for the study of the effects of a large boys' club upon the boys and the community. This study, which was financed at a cost of \$36,000 by the Bureau of Social Hygiene, has brought its active phase to a close. Extensive data have been collected on various phases of the problem. The coming year will be devoted to organization and the writing up of such data for a final report which is to be ready September 1, 1932.

Many phases of the study have been prepared as master's and doctoral dissertations. None of these materials, however, will be available until the final report has been prepared.

The final report of the study as well as separate reports on such topics as the case-study method, social cost accounting, truancy, juvenile delinquency, community organization in an interstitial area, Italian backgrounds, etc., will be published eventually as monographs.

It is planned to devote a special issue of the JOURNAL to the boys' club study in the spring of 1932. This issue will be concerned chiefly with the methods of the study and the articles embodied in it will not present conclusions from the data collected.

CHICAGO SUMMER RESEARCH INSTITUTE

One of the most ambitious institutes which the Society for Social Research of the University of Chicago has as yet undertaken was held on August 29-31, 1931, in the Social Science Research Building of the University of Chicago. The program was arranged by representatives of three midwestern universities who cooperated in preparing the discussion around the topic "Regionalism." The specific title selected as the general topic of the conference was "Social Research in the Mid-West Region." Representatives not only of the colleges and universities in the midwest region engaged in social research, but also of government and private research institutions, presented papers and participated in the round-table discussions¹

DIRECTORY OF RESEARCH IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT

The Committee on Child Development of the National Research Council is undertaking a revision of the *Directory of Research in Child Development* published in 1927 (Reprint and Circular Series No. 76). The directory is an attempt to secure coordination of research and cooperation among investigators by facilitating interchange of materials, reprints, and methods, and by providing a comprehensive list from which may be chosen the membership of conferences on various phases of child research.

NEW YORK STATE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH²

The Educational Research Division of the New York State Education Department has a director and three research assistants, each of whom has a doctor's degree and has majored in a different educational field. Because many fields of research have a literature and technique so voluminous that it is becoming impossible for one person to be an expert in all fields, some specialization of interest and activities becomes necessary.

¹It is expected that a more detailed account of the work of the conference will be presented in this department in a later issue of the JOURNAL.

²This statement is presented through the courtesy of Warren W. Cox, Director, Educational Research Division, New York State Education Department, Albany, N. Y.

Space precludes more than a brief mention of the types of problems which are now being studied. Several studies are within the secondary field. Two years ago data were gathered from high-school pupils, former high-school pupils, and high-school teachers and principals relative to the function of the high school and changes which should be made in its organization and administration. These data have contributed to certain related problems such as "Characteristics of High-School Students in Different Types of Communities." Other high-school studies based upon other data are "Trends in Secondary Education in New York State," "Educational Needs of Pupils in Small High Schools," and "Study of the High-School Teacher in New York State."

Several problems in the field of teacher training have been studied in the past five years. These problems include a survey of present adequacy of teacher training in New York State; a careful estimate of the teacher demand in the State; an effort to devise tests which would prognosticate teaching ability and could be used in determining entrance to teacher-training institutions; and, through co-operation with the New York State Teachers Association, a study of the effectiveness of normal-school instruction through an evaluation of the normal-school product.

Until recently the Division has not conducted studies in the field of higher education. Now, however, one study is under way and another projected. We are trying to evaluate credentials which are submitted for college entrance, and we hope soon to start an investigation of those students who are refused admission to colleges.

Another group of problems which is exceedingly challenging and seems to be fundamental to much of the educational unrest of today is that relating to school organization. An investigation has been completed to show the history of grouping pupils in school for purposes of instruction. Another study is completed and in press which analyzes some of the psychological aspects involved in

ability grouping. Still another study is under way which attempts to find sociological bases for grouping children in school. In addition to these, certain surveys have been made to find out what schools in New York State are doing to adjust their school organizations to the needs of pupils.

Two additional studies which are not classifiable in any of the four headings used are a "Study of Teachers' Salaries in New York State" and a "Study of the Elementary-School Auditorium." The latter refers to its use and administration rather than to its construction.

While in the beginning this work started under the auspices of the assistant commissioner for elementary education, the work has broadened and now any field from the elementary to higher education may be a proper province for Division projects. During the history of the Division an effort has been made not to become buried in the gathering of routine statistical data, important as these may be. The size of the State Education Department with more or less adequate facilities in other divisions would seem to make this obligation unnecessary. Consistent effort has been made to formulate problems faced by the Department administration and to contribute towards their solution. In other words, the data which it gathers are data which it considers essential to the formation of policies.

BOOK REVIEWS

Criminal Justice in America, by ROSCOE POUND. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1930, 226 pages.

The Story of Punishment, by HARRY ELMER BARNES. Boston: The Stratford Company, 1930, 292 pages.

It is doubtful that, in the history of the American press, more space has ever been given the sane, scientific, and constructive discussion of crime, punishment, and justice than during the past eighteen months. There was a time, and not long since, when any suggestion advocating the improvement of prison conditions was met with tirades of sarcasm aimed at the simpletons who would "coddle the convict." The criminal, in the very nature of things inhumane and antisocial, pariah, deserved neither humanity nor social consideration. "Treat 'em rough," was the slogan. "Socially sick? Treat them as such and, if possible, cure them? The bunk!"

But, such is the strange nature of the human mind, it required only the emotional shock of a series of bloody prison riots with the attendant publicity to largely reverse the current of public opinion and to produce also in the press an opposite reaction. The result has been overwhelming. We see Federal and State crime commissions at work, legislatures voting funds, long withheld, for the building of more and scientifically better prisons, legislators who know not what it is all about reading up on the subject and presenting bills, Harry Barnes on an editorial page, Heywood Brown getting away with a column which might well be included in any modern criminology, and editorial and special feature writers suddenly turned sociologists.

This is surprising! To the masses it will appear as though new facts, new theory, and a new social attitude had been discovered. But, not so. There is in this not a single new proposal which has not been current in classrooms and gone unheeded for several generations at least. But surprising only if you fail to remember that the "most remarkable characteristic of the human mind is its ability to withstand information" until "shocked" into facing the facts.

At this point two more books appear with definite bearing on the subject. It is safe to presume that they will receive more serious consideration than they could have even a decade ago.

Roscoe Pound, eminent dean of the Harvard Law School, presents a scholarly dissertation on *Criminal Justice in America*. Dean Pound, long the protagonist of legal reform, presents a historical survey of the foundations of our present system. He discusses the problem of criminal justice, the difficulties of doing justice, our inheritance from England, the operation of criminal justice in the nineteenth century

in America and its operation today. It is a telling and thought-provoking discussion, learned, but not to the point of obscurity.

Dr Harry Elmer Barnes's *The Story of Punishment* is of an entirely different sort but equally effective. In order to tell the same story, that of the shortcomings of justice, he presents a history of punishment from rack and pinion to third degree and electric chair. The object is not merely to paint the picture of a chamber of horrors but to shock the public into a realization of the worse than useless brutalities which we have visited on the head of the criminal, real or suspected. This book also is history. "Professor Barnes claims that no other subject is quite so useful as history in undermining the prestige which attaches to our various forms of sanctified savagery and intolerance. He presents this study for its influence on the future of punishment rather than as a mere portrayal of the penal blunderings of the past." The only unfortunate part of the book is the paper jacket which the publishers have seen fit to use. This lurid chamber of horrors in red and black would give the impression that it is merely "A Record of Man's Inhumanity to Man" for the sordid enjoyment of seekers of unusual thrills. The actual story is bad enough but this is far from the purpose or the impression which will be left in the mind of the reader.

CLARENCE G. DITTMER

Animal Children, by PAUL EIPPER, with photographs by HEDDA WALTHER, translated by FREDERICK H. MARTENS. New York: The Viking Press, 1930, 70 pages.

Human Children, by PAUL EIPPER, with photographs by HEDDA WALTHER, translated by FREDERICK H. MARTENS. New York: The Viking Press, 1930, 70 pages.

In each of these delightful and strangely attractive little volumes are two books of equally high merit—a text by Paul Eipper and thirty-two portrait studies after original photographs by Hedda Walther. Some will follow the thousands in Europe who have read the Eipper text and have found therein a new world of animals and children—and a rare glimpse of the personality of the loveable Eipper—while others will turn the pages and look into the patient faces of babies and animals to discover uncanny relationships with themselves and the vast biological life about them of which animals and babies are but a part.

The books tell so much more than what they say and portray. That is because of Eipper. He is not a scientist merely, an observer merely, anything merely. Some steps above the scientific method is the method of the lover of life, the man with kindly soul who looks on the mystery of mysteries and knows that hope for us all lies not in knowing but in feeling, not in accuracy but in a sympathetic and tolerant contemplation; not in a faith that we may ever solve anything, but in an

assurance that the mystery is forever beyond us and surpassingly lovely and worthy.

HUGHES MEARNS

Plato and His Contemporaries, A Study in Fourth-Century Life and Thought, by G. C. FIELD. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1930, 185 pages.

Here is another enjoyable study of the undying Plato. It "is intended to serve as a preliminary or supplementary essay to the study of the philosophy of Plato." There are accounts of Plato's life and work and of his background—moral, political, literary, and philosophical. The story of Plato's Academy, our first western university, is both entertaining and informing. And Plato himself as a university professor was educated partly by travel.

Two things especially in this book that educators will appreciate are, first, the fact that the junior students in the academy studied objects of nature, animals, trees, and vegetables; and, second, that the metaphysics of Plato, contrary to the "genetic" mode of interpretation and criticism, is independent of the social conditions of Plato's time. "The most important part of the material with which he had to deal in his metaphysics or logical investigations does not vary from age to age, or from one country to another."

There is a frontispiece, there are appendices on the Platonic letters and other matters, and two indices.

HERMAN H. HORNE

Adult Education: The Evening Industrial School, by PROSSER and BASS. New York: The Century Company, 1930, 390 pages.

This is one of the few books in the field dealing in a practical way with the many problems incidental to that form of adult education embraced by the evening industrial schools. The authors are leaders in the field and they speak with authority. The book is replete with concrete suggestions growing out of the extensive experience and the sound common sense of the writers. Of particular interest is the emphasis upon the conduct of the evening school for adults on the assumption that the primary purpose of such an evening school is to consider the needs and desires of the adults attending. Administrators of public evening schools have, in the past, been too prone to follow traditional day-school practices without apparently realizing or giving full consideration to the fact that adults usually attend school in the evening of their own volition, they have a fairly good idea of what they think they want and need; and they are usually intolerant of juvenile procedures and petty regulations which may have their place

in a school for adolescents but which are of doubtful value in a school for mature men and women.

One of the administrative devices most difficult to introduce into the traditionally managed evening school is the short course designed to cover a particular unit of work. The assembling of such unit courses into a series makes it possible to cover as great a range as is covered in the usual full-year course, but the arrangement on a unit basis enables the adult to take what he wants when he wants it. Such a flexible organization may be harder to administer, but it is possible and, when well done, is far more satisfactory to the students.

These phases of the work are well covered in the book, as are also many other aspects of value to the teacher and to the administrator in adult education.

RALPH E. PICKETT

Studies and Tests on Vergil's Aeneid, by FLORENCE WATERMAN. Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. 17. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1930, 122 pages.

Among standardized tests which have appeared for the various years of high-school Latin there are comparatively few which pertain to the fourth year although there is a real use for such tests by teachers of Vergil. Among the most unique and interesting Vergil tests that have appeared are those produced by Miss Waterman of the Windsor School of Boston. She has, first of all, a series of completion exercises based on Books I, II, III, and VI of the Aeneid. From each of these books a large number of verses have been taken, and from each verse one word is omitted. Five possible words are given including the one which Vergil used, and the student is asked to select the word which belongs in the verse. These words have been chosen with a fine understanding of the working of the secondary student's mind, and with a great deal of ingenuity. The completion of these exercises will cultivate a finer feeling for the poetic ideas which Vergil expressed. Care has been taken to include approximately all of the fourth-year words in the list published by the College Entrance Board. This list is given in the book as is also the complete list of all words used in the completion exercises.

Part II of the book contains a series of questions on Books I, III, and VI which are asked in Latin. The answers to these questions are to be chosen from a list of words and phrases which follow.

The latter portion of the book contains a series of tests on the Aeneid. The typical test contains about fifteen verses taken from the completion exercises, about fifteen questions for which the answers are to be selected as indicated above, one or more passages in which ten words are omitted and which are to be replaced in the text from a list of words given below, also some ten verses in all of which the first half

is given and the last half is to be replaced from a list of half lines which follow. There are also two map tests.

While, of course, these tests would not replace the type of test ordinarily given by the teacher of Vergil they will be very useful as supplementary tests and will show the development of appreciation of Vergil as the ordinary type of test cannot do

ROLLIN H. TANNER

The Nature of Life, by EUGENIO RIGNANO, translated by N. MALINSON. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1930, 327 pages.

Professor Rignano's book is a presentation of the vitalistic viewpoint. He bases the argument upon solid biological fact with a wealth of example and illustration. If his conclusions are at variance with those of certain schools this may be considered one of the real values of the book. He is at any rate no mere theorist and his conceptions are founded upon a solid and well-rounded training.

The theme of "vitalistic purposiveness" is followed throughout the work showing how living stuff carries out processes that are essentially different from those observed in inorganic "now living" matter. The subject material is lucidly handled and is interestingly presented. Philosophy and science are welded together in an altogether charming and instructive manner.

This reviewer feels that here is a text which can be used in his classes and medical practice. Most vitalists are so painfully untrained or uneducated, biologically speaking, that these arguments tend more to be the verbalizations of wishing than ought else.

The new physics is a strange thing. Many of its proponents are not quite so sure of mechanism as was Loeb. Even biologists who have absorbed some of the concepts of this physicist confrere are not as a mass so sure. The material and concepts so well presented in Professor Rignano's book deserves serious consideration by every searcher after that elusive entity—Truth.

The Heart of Democracy, by JAMES ROSS. James Ross Sandusky, Ohio, 1930, 263 pages.

This book was written by a teacher of history and civics in Sandusky, Ohio, High School to show the public "what the active teacher inside the high school thinks."

The earlier chapters are "in lighter vein to let the reader into the author's personality and his way of looking at things." The reader is let far in even to personal details.

Critical appraisal of schools is in the style of the "inspirational" insti-

tute lecture. Democracy is thought to be imperiled by the "collapse" of "modern education in general, disintegrated, formal, purposeless." While admitting that many failures are only partial, criticism, often sarcastic, is aimed at everything standardized, unit organization, "point credit," lack of provision for slower students, failure to improve the teaching force, failure to provide a type of university to receive and hold all who may want higher education. The "intelligentsia" defined as "those class-conscious, hierarchy-loving aristocrats who seek to obtain a throttle hold on our institutions" are hampering progress because of "self-interest." Only youth is given a "clean bill of health."

To prevent unemployment, return to school and higher education all youth and replace them with the unemployed.

Unsupported opinions based on "observation and experience" and little respect for recent developments characterize the book.

CHARLES M. GILL

A Select Bibliography of Modern Economic Theory, compiled by HAROLD E. BATSON. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1930, 220 pages.

This book provides an excellent selection of the important works on the modern theory of economics from 1870 to 1929. It is practical for both teacher and student of economics. The teacher will be able to keep fresh in his mind all the best authorities and likewise be better equipped to advise his classes regarding their collateral reading. The student can read and form his own judgment without feeling that in making experiments he is wasting his time.

Part One is a list of books in the different departments, classified by subjects. Part Two is a series of bibliographies of different authors, representing English, German, and French.

The author states that: "Theoretical economics has had a recognized status as a branch of scientific knowledge for at least one hundred and fifty years." "Today," he says, "the situation has changed. The teaching of economics as a university subject has spread and the number of men engaged in serious economic research has multiplied." In consequence, the volume of really important work has greatly increased. This *Select Bibliography* is intended to help the teachers and students of economics to keep abreast of all the monographs, treatises, and articles now pouring forth from the economics departments of most of the universities of the world.

JOHN N. ANDREWS

The American Road to Culture, by GEORGE S. COUNTS. New York: John Day, 1930, 194 pages.

This book is a stimulating, well-written, and valuable contribution to the theory of American education. Of three possible approaches to

an intelligent understanding of the theory on which the policy and practice of education in this country is based, namely, the point of view of leading educators, the point of view of other outstanding students of American life in relation to education, and the study of the educational institutions themselves which have been evolved in the United States, Professor Counts has chosen the last named. His reason for so doing is stated as follows:

"Through its concrete program of education a nation must give conscious or unconscious answer to every important question of theory and these facts, the responses of society rooted in the folkways and mores of the population, possess a validity and a vitality which no purely theoretic pronouncement, however authoritative, can hope to attain. In a word, they constitute the living theory of education of a country, the theory which has been made fresh and endowed with the breath of life."

The writer recognizes the difficulty of this approach, not only because it is largely new and uncharted, but also because it is beset with the difficulty of carrying the inquiry beyond the writings of educators to the institutions of education and beyond these institutions to the interplay of social and geographic forces. He calls attention to the fact that a particular educational form gives expression to a particular theory of life which in turn is the result of the operation of numerous natural and human forces. He is distinctly aware that any theory worked out in this way will be lacking in logical completeness and that it is certain to contain numerous contradictions and to lack completeness. It will exhibit all the characteristics of the living organism. "It will possess the vestiges of adaptations to conditions which have passed away as well as imperfect and partial adjustments to the contemporary situation. Also in response to varying surroundings it will show some differences from community to community."

He calls attention to the fact that the American educational system as it took form during the first three quarters of the nineteenth century reflected the conditions, the ideals, and the aspirations of the pioneering and agrarian society. In this society, life was simple, community was isolated from community, human wants were few, the cultural level was low, and a general condition of economic equality and security prevailed, but during the past generation and a half social changes of the most profound character have shattered the old order and on its ruin there is arising a highly integrated and mechanical civilization which is marked by vast, industrial combinations, minute divisions of labor, complicated monetary arrangements, intricate systems of transportation and communication, concentration of population in urban centers, wide differences in wealth and income, commercialized amusements and recreation, the relaxation of moral standards since then, the disintegration of time-honored institutions, the repudiation of ancient philosophies and theories of the universe, and the general heightening of the tension of life. To this new order, educational policies and programs have but partially adjusted themselves. They still con-

tain numerous elements which can be explained only in terms of the civilization which today is only a memory. Moreover, because the United States embraces a vast territory of widely varying climate and natural resources, civilization with us has assumed somewhat distinctive forms in several parts of the country. On the other hand, certain processes of integration as well as social differentiations are combining to remove differences and to produce a single civilization from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the dominion of Canada to the Gulf of Mexico.

In spite of all these complexities and divergences the author feels that certain broad generalizations regarding the theory underlying the American system of education may be drawn. In his judgment there are ten principles which may be singled out for emphasis and which should arouse but little dispute among informed persons. These are faith in education, governmental responsibility, local initiative, individual success, democracy, national solidarity, social conformity, mechanical efficiency, practical utility, and philosophic uncertainty. The author devotes an interesting chapter to the exposition of each of these principles.

The book throughout is thought-provoking and is certain to be widely read among progressive educators.

JOHN W. WITKERS

Annual Report of the General Education Board 1928-1929. New York: General Education Board, 1930, 108 pages.

The annual reports of the General Education Board are of more than passing interest. This publication is especially important, dealing, as it does, with the history of the organization. Fifty pages are devoted to the work of all the Rockefeller Boards since 1902 and their reorganization during the year ending June 30, 1929.

An organization faced with the obligation of disbursing millions of dollars must exercise wisdom of the first magnitude. No one realizes better than the benefactors that this obligation amounts to a public trust. In directing support towards education, a penetrating analysis of the condition, trends, and needs of education is imperative. The nature of the work done by the Rockefeller Boards, therefore, becomes particularly significant.

A glance at the index will compel attention to the end of the report. College education, public education, the science and processes of education, industrial art, negro education, natural sciences, humanities, and medical education are all the beneficiaries of the General Education Board and allied Rockefeller Foundations. Full recognition of the special cooperation of other foundations is given. Stimulating new and worthy enterprises, encouraging searches for truth, improving working

conditions, and making the improbable possible are among the achievements recorded. The report is modest in its characterization of results but the observant reader cannot fail to see the extent of the usefulness of one of education's best friends—the General Education Board

NED H. DEARBORN

The Liberal College in Changing Society, by JOHN B. JOHNSTON. New York: The Century Company, 1930, 326 pages.

Any one familiar with Dean Johnston's articles in this field would have predicted that should he write a book on the college it would be a good one. That prediction is fulfilled. This is, *me judice*, the most thoroughly conceived, most practically constructive volume on higher education that has been produced. This statement is intended to be a compliment but in view of the quality of the output, it is a doubtful one. The author says in the preface that "there is no need for another book to criticize the liberal college or to mourn its early demise." He spends no time at either of these gratuitous tasks. His experience in arts-college work and his leadership at Minnesota in constructive experimentation for the improvement of such work entitle him to speak as one having authority. Yet he writes with no authoritative or dogmatic manner. The various chapters deal with objectives, sources and fitness of students, guidance, curriculum, the marking system, undergraduate instruction, the evaluation of educational results, the training of college teachers, student activities, etc.

He does not deal with mere generalities and vague philosophizing about objectives. His first chapter on "Functions, Relations and Status" and the second on "Objectives of the College" set forth his views of the function and purpose of the arts college in definite terms with sufficient indication of his program which he elaborates in later chapters. The chapter on "Sources of Students" is full of valuable data upon students, derived from years of study of this matter at his own university. The chapter, "Guidance of Students," deals with the introduction, orientation, and advisement of the student and is one of the ablest discussions of this important subject that has yet appeared. Three different chapters deal with the college curriculum—the first is entitled, "Curriculum Determined by Classification of Students;" the second, "Curriculum as Opportunity;" and a third chapter on "Suggestions for Immediate Changes in Curriculum." He favors building curricula largely through guidance, with the general principle that types of curricula originate from the needs of different types of students. His conception of the new type of college teacher and adviser necessary to carry out this entire scheme of undergraduate education should inspire all present incumbents and future aspirants to prepare more adequately for their responsibilities. There is a chapter on the "Training of College Teachers" that points out the dangers as well as the constructive measures possible in this field now receiving so

much consideration. Any review of such a book can only be a travesty or anticlimax. Read and get wise.

J. O. CREAGER

The Training of College Teachers, edited by WILLIAM S. GRAY. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930, 242 pages.

The title of this volume is epoch making. After one hundred years of American progress in the training of public-school teachers, the question at last arises at the college level. This first volume to deal with the subject is a symposium made up of contributions from university presidents, deans of graduate schools and of schools of education, and university professors. The editor's chapter reporting the results of his survey of current methods in the training of college teachers presents material from twenty-seven out of the thirty graduate schools to whom he sent inquiries. The policies in these twenty-seven institutions show a wide variety of practice and opinion but it is significant that all are aware that there is a problem here and are addressing their efforts towards its solution. Among the various methods of attack used we find selective admission of graduate students, apprentice teaching, experimentation in teaching problems, professional courses in higher education, supervision of novices in college teaching, courses in special methods in the various subjects to be taught, directed observation of teaching, etc.

The volume will prove a surprise to the reader who may not have kept up with the current discussions and practices in the new field of so-called educational heresy. The outstanding bone of contention among the contributors to the volume is obviously the tender point as to the offering of formal courses in higher education. There is practical unanimity of opinion to the effect that something needs to be done to improve upon the product of graduate schools, which are conceded to be largely teacher-producing, if not teacher-training, institutions. But, there is neither unanimity nor amity when it is proposed to attack this problem by offering courses in education.

Dean Gordon J. Laing of the Graduate School of the University of Chicago has some salty remarks to make about those who "still insist that there is no time for such courses." He says, "The amount of damage that these die-hards have done to the intellectual possibilities of high-school students, and so to the college careers of high-school graduates, by their obstinate persistence in their time-worn, tattered, moth-eaten, and fly-blown misconceptions of the art of teaching is incalculable. The educational waste involved is stupendous. For, to a large extent, through their influence the universities have been sending to the high schools thousands and thousands of so-called Masters, gorged with the lecture notes through which they knew they could pass their examinations, replete with memorized excerpts of their read-

ing assignments, crammed with dates and other tags of erudition, but wholly unable to develop the thinking and reasoning faculty in young students for the simple reason that it has never been developed in themselves. They are the stuffed capons of the academic inclosure, stolid, stodgy, immobile, and unproductive." Bear witness to the fact that these are not the words of any meek and gentle education professor who never would have dared to burst out with such Carlslesque invective.

In this new movement towards the professionalizing of the college teacher, attention may be called to the fact—not reported in the volume—that since 1924 the School of Education of New York University has been offering a systematic scheme of graduate study by which those seeking master's and doctor's degrees may divide their program on a one-third two-third basis as between the professional study of higher education and specialization in subject matter. Why this was not reported in the volume, deponent saith not.

J. O. CREAGER

China and Japan in our University Curricula, edited by
EDWARD C. CARTER. Chicago: The University of
Chicago Press, 1930, 327 pages.

This book is the result of an investigation conducted under the general direction of the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations to determine to what extent colleges and universities in the United States are offering courses or are otherwise giving to their students opportunities to secure information in the field of Chinese and Japanese culture and civilization. Indicative of the need of such a study, Henri Cordier in a book on China has said, "The Occidentals have singularly contracted the field of history of the world where they have grouped around the people of Israel, Greece, and Rome the little that they knew of the expansion of the human race, being completely ignorant of those voyagers who plowed the China Sea and the Indian Ocean, of those cavalades across the immensities of central Asia to the Persian Gulf."

The types of institutions studied are junior colleges, teachers colleges, colleges, and universities. Questionnaires were sent to 546 institutions of which approximately four fifths replied. The majority of the institutions offer but one course, the average offering being between two and three courses, with a few offering fifteen to twenty-six. The number of students to a class in these courses averages 22, and three semester hours constitute the most frequent credit granted. The 52 junior colleges included in the study offer no courses. Ten teachers colleges, 44 colleges and 57 universities offer courses. Out of a total of 281 courses offered, 152 are offered by the history departments. The language and literature departments rank second in number of courses offered. Seven institutions offer courses in the Chinese or Japanese language.

Some of the most interesting chapters in the book are the following: "How Interest in the Orient Grew," by Professor Quincy Wright of the University of Chicago; "Looking Through the Golden Gate," by Professor Gale of the University of California; "Monument to a Chinese Servant," by Professor Goodrich of Columbia; and "Training for Trade and Diplomacy," by Professor Quigley of Minnesota. The book is a valuable study of a field meriting greater attention. The material is clearly presented and the editorial work well done.

J. C. CRAIGER

The American College Girl, by ten American college girls.
Boston: L. C. Page and Company, 1930, 313 pages.

The steadily increasing amount of periodical literature dealing with the pros and cons of women's college education bears witness to popular interest in the subject. The volume under review may or may not owe its origin to this widespread interest in the general subject. In any case its appearance is timely. A new and entirely different approach to the women's college discussion is thus projected on a rich and varied background composed of many recent controversial issues.

Ten essays on ten women's colleges, each written by a graduate or an undergraduate of her respective institution comprise the volume. Each essay is a prize winner in the competition sponsored by the publishers, L. C. Page and Company. The stories of Bryn Mawr, Goucher, Mount Holyoke, Radcliffe, Rockford, Scripps, Simmons, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley follow one another in alphabetical order. They give one a veritable panorama of the entire women's college world. The reviewer is fortunate enough to have visited eight of the ten colleges included. She has, therefore, been much interested in reading the volume and in answering, to her own satisfaction, three questions. Can the secondary-school girl visualize the pictures? Yes, fairly well. In two instances the personality of the writer, as indicated by choice of material and style of presentation, seemed to blend admirably into the personality of the college as this reviewer knows it. What are the literary merits of the different essays? Unknown. Probably the reviewer has placed the greatest value as word pictures on two essays which would be open to serious criticisms on literary merits. To what extent has the material informational or guidance value for young women who contemplate college careers? The volume ranks high in inspirational value and it has informational value but it seems too much to claim that it will fulfill the major purpose stated by the publishers—assist girls who contemplate entrance into college in the solution of their preliminary problems (p. viii).

The book is recommended to secondary-school girls who desire to know what American college girls are doing in American colleges. It is recommended for teachers who are interested in seeing college life through the eyes of youth and who desire recent information on the traditions and everyday practices of our women's colleges.

ANNA Y. REED

The Impending Storm, by SOMERSET DE CHAIRE. New York: Richard R. Smith, 1930, 137 pages.

The Impending Storm is an interesting account of an eighteen-year-old youth's observations on world conditions. Somerset de Chaire, the author, undertakes to speak for the younger generation which has reached years of discretion since the war, and which, he believes, is unbiased and unembittered by the animosities of a struggle already in the pages of history.

The hostility engendered by the demand for repayment of the war loans made by the United States to the allied nations is considered at length. The author ventures the opinion that the danger of receiving the debts in gold or commerce, and the wisdom of having a rich well-disposed instead of a hostile poverty-stricken customer in Europe is in itself an argument in favor of debt cancellation which America cannot well ignore. Similarly, the same obstacles are seen arising in the matter of the German reparations. The dissatisfaction of Germany and her probable attitude when she feels strong enough to refuse further payments, together with the French determination never to permit Germany to recover her strength are pointed to as ominous war clouds. In this connection the suggestion is made that if the United States ever permits cancellation of the war debts a corresponding cancellation of Germany's reparations obligations would tend to remove a dangerous threat to world peace.

In the Balkan zone the author favors the recreation of the natural and economic unity of Hungary by restoring Slovakia, Transylvania, and part of Yugoslavia to Hungary, these units to become separate independent states with a federal government at Budapest. The rapid growth of population in Italy, so great that the country must "expand or explode," leads to a desire for colonial acquisitions which may well kindle a war between Italy and France, for Tunis and Syria, a French mandate, are the logical outlets for Italy. Anti-British feeling in the Near East with Russian penetration and propaganda is pointed out as another sore spot, while in the Far East there is the ever present threat of Russian and Chinese encroachment upon the industrial and economic dominance of the Japanese in Manchuria. Truly the picture painted in this volume is not one for the pacifist, for the author assures us that while

the Doves of Geneva are fluttering contentedly, the Eagles of Italy, Germany, Hungary and the United States are unfurling their war beaten wings. The French Cock is crowing. The British Lion roars. And from far across the storied battle-fields of Europe comes the growling of the Bear. In the East the fire-breathing Dragon of China is revived. Japan waits and watches with an oriental scorn of time.

In conclusion the author gives his view as to the nations and their alignments in the impending storm and the probable consequences. Interesting as this volume is, the reader must bear in mind that it is but a congeries of personal opinions on international affairs and therefore, highly speculative.

F. F. MURFEE

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Dean Payne Honored

A Bon Voyage Luncheon was tendered to Dr. E. George Payne, assistant dean of the School of Education, by his former and present students, at the Hotel Brevoort, Fifth Avenue and Eighth Street, on May 2.

On May 6 Dean and Mrs. Payne sailed for Geneva, Switzerland, where he took part in the deliberations of an International Commission which is making a survey of narcotic education.

Ned H. Dearborn, director of the Institute of Education, was toastmaster. Other speakers included Dr. John O. Creager, on "My friend George among Wyoming cowboys"; Ralph E. Pickett, on "Dr. Payne's contributions to educational sociology." Julian L. Archer, instructor in the department of educational sociology, presented to Dean Payne a life membership in the American Sociological Society, and Dean John W. Withers presented to his assistant a painting of himself done by Professor Robert Kissack.

In acknowledging the testimonial accorded him, and thanking gratefully all those who had participated in it, Dean Payne spoke of the great pleasure he has always felt in working for New York University, and promised to return with renewed zest.

A feature in connection with the luncheon was the bundle of letters presented by those present, as well as other friends who could not attend. These "bon voyage" letters were to be opened by Dean and Mrs. Payne after they had passed the "twelve-mile" limit.

The "Committee of Former-Present Students of Dr. Payne" that arranged the luncheon consisted of Dr. Benjamin F. Stalcup, chairman; John Patterson, Alletta Phillips, Saul Bloomgarten, Florence Zimmerman, Louis Bader, Silas Rorem, Francis J. Brown, Julian L. Archer, Alvin E. Belden, and Elizabeth Schmidt.—*New York University Alumnus*, May 6, 1931.

The Teacher and World Peace

The movement for better international understanding through education is making progress. It may be slow but here and there, in many sections of the United States as well as the world, schoolmen in the field of education, economics, history, religion, and politics have caught the spirit of this new movement. The number of colleges and universities interested in international relations in education is increasing. Some institutions have, for some time, been offering courses in various fields of the social sciences interpreted from an international viewpoint. Some institutions have created departments on international relations, other departments on international education. Still others have set up special institutes on some aspect of international relations.

for foreign affairs, politics, or education. Haverford College has joined this movement. Teachers, principals, and superintendents are interested in two aspects of the movement towards international understanding. First, what might be called content courses which give the factual basis of the new world situation and relationships; second, courses on ways and means or methods of reorganizing and reintegrating our school program without the addition of new courses in the curriculum, and ways and means of changing international attitudes.

The program of the Haverford Institute of International Relations, held June 22 to July 3, 1931, under the joint auspices of the American Friends Service Committee and Haverford College, follows:

Political Problems of Establishing World Peace. European international relations prior to the World War, postwar efforts towards world cooperation—the League of Nations, World Court, Arbitration Treaties, etc.; American foreign policy and its effects on world peace—freedom of the seas, the Monroe Doctrine, etc. Sidney B. Fay, Edward W. Evans

Present-Day Economic Facts and Tendencies—Their Effect on International Relations. American commercial growth and its effect on our foreign policy; economic and financial interdependence—its political significance; war from the point of view of the economist. Herbert F. Fraser

Spiritual Aspects of the Struggle for World Peace. war in the light of religious standards and motives, loyalties—patriotism in the world of today, moral and ethical problems in questions of war and peace. Henry J. Cadbury, Leyton Richards

How Attitudes are Created. a consideration of psychological and other factors entering into the creating of attitudes. William H. Kilpatrick.

Disarmament—the 1931 World Problem. the economic and political significance of armaments; previous attempts at disarmament, the World Disarmament Conference of February, 1932. William I. Hull

How Teachers can Build Towards World Peace. Harold Rugg.

The Assembly Period as an Avenue for Creating Good Will. Rachel Davis DuBois

Extracurricular Activities and Their Relation to World Peace. Rachel Davis DuBois, Harold Rugg

In Memoriam

Dr. Donald Scott Snedden, with his wife and six other friends, have met death in Long Island Sound. Dr. Snedden had long anticipated a week-end cruise on the sloop the *Sea Fox*, which was bought during the winter and had been conditioned for the trip. Just what took place we may never know, but thus we believe, that eight brilliant young people were lost.

Dr. Snedden was associate professor of education at New York University, having charge of clinical psychology and related subjects in the department of educational psychology. He was an unusual teacher, a

brilliant scholar, and a fine colleague. He was always ready to cooperate, never sparing himself. He willingly carried a very heavy load during the year because of the illness of another member of the staff. The future of the work in the psycho-educational and mental-hygiene clinic had been organized and everything was ready for exceptionally fine work, both on the graduate and the undergraduate levels. Recently Dr. Snedden had been elected secretary of the Association of Consulting Psychologists and had taken an active part in its reorganization and work. We feel that his loss is an irreparable one.

We extend to the parents and relatives of all those who lost their lives our sincerest sympathy. In this dark hour we are endeavoring to carry on for their sake—Charles E. Benson, *Educational Service*, July 1931.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Professor Franklin Bobbitt received his A.B. degree from the University of Indiana in 1901, and his Ph.D. from Clark University in 1909. Dr. Bobbitt has had much experience as an instructor and superintendent of schools, and is a specialist in curriculum construction and also a leader in developing the public-school survey. He is the author of the following books: *What the Schools Teach and Might Teach*, *The Curriculum*, *Curriculum-Making in Los Angeles*, *How to Make a Curriculum*, and also many widely distributed reports. Dr. Bobbitt is at present professor in the School of Education of the University of Chicago.

Dr. Ellsworth Collings received his Sc.B. from the University of Missouri in 1917 and his A.M. (1922) and Ph.D. (1924) degrees from Columbia University. Dr. Collings has been with the University of Oklahoma since 1922 and dean of the School of Education since 1926. He is a member of various educational associations and is the author of the following books: *Course of Study for Rural Boys and Girls*, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*, *How to Guide in the Study of Project Teaching*, *A Conduct Scale for Measuring Teaching*, and *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*.

Professor C. L. Robbins received his A.B. at the University of Kansas in 1902, his A.M. at the same institution in 1903, and his Ph.D. at Columbia University in 1912. Dr. Robbins was a teacher and a principal of schools in Kansas until 1905; a teacher in various normal schools until 1918, and, at present, is professor of education in the State University of Iowa. Dr. Robbins is a member of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, American Sociological Society, American History Association, Society for the Study of Education, College Teachers of Education, and various honorary societies. He is the author of *Teachers in Germany in the Sixteenth Century*, *The School as a Social Institution*, *The Socialized Recitation*, and, in conjunction with Elmer Green, *School History of the American People*. He has also contributed many articles to magazines.

Professor Donald Snedden was associate professor of education in the department of educational psychology of the School of Education, New York University. His undergraduate work was done at Stanford University; his graduate training was at Columbia University. He had been a school psychologist and was associated with the National Committee for Mental Hygiene in a survey of the penitentiaries of Texas. He was on the faculties of Cooper Union and Harvard University Graduate School of Education.

Dr. Benjamin Floyd Stalcup, associate professor of education, is a native of Indiana. He was graduated from Indiana State Normal School, and later from Indiana University with an A.B. in social science.

He received his A.M. in education from the University of Chicago in 1923, and the doctorate in educational sociology from New York University in 1927. His teaching experience has covered a wide range, from rural school to university. He has taught as student teacher in all the institutions from which he was graduated. He has been a visiting professor in summer sessions, Defiance College (1917-1918) and the University of Chicago (1922-1923). Before coming to his present position in 1924, Professor Stalcup was in the department of history and social science, State Teachers College of Winona, Minnesota.

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EDITORIAL

It is a pleasure to be able to herald the first "progressive" college in the United States. The tragedy of the first youth in five generations who was unable to enter Yale because he had attended "progressive" schools is destined to be a short-lived woe. Bennington College for young women will open in Vermont in 1932, and it is inevitable that similar colleges for young men will follow shortly. It remains only to clarify what we mean when we refer to Bennington College as "progressive."

Many of the traditional college practices will be replaced by new and challenging ideas. There will be no required entrance examinations and no prescribed list of subjects in which one has attained the customary fifteen units. Searching exploration of the candidate's personal history will be the means of determining fitness for college education. The essential qualification is that the candidate shall have shown exceptional interest and promise in at least one field of activity. A candidate may conceivably fail in some high-school subjects and still be accepted at Bennington. The one thing she cannot do in the preparatory-school period is to maintain a dead-level mediocrity in high-school marks, however high the marks may be, for that accents passing and not outstanding ability. The talent may be possessed in literature, in the natural and physical sciences, in the social studies, or in fine arts. It is significant that fine art is to be recognized as subject matter appropriate for the college course. Tuition is to cover the actual cost of instruction and will amount to about one thousand dol-

lars annually exclusive of living cost, but liberal scholarships will ensure talented young women a place at Bennington if they give evidence of ability to make some contribution to human life. One cannot review these new emphases without feeling that some new values are emerging in American education.

The provisions for the student admitted to the college are no less forward looking than the admission requirements. Work for the first two years is to be individually arranged, with a number of orientation courses available, and membership in a trial major conference group required. At the end of two years, the student may advance to the senior division only on demonstrated ability, marks and points accumulated playing no part in the selection. In the senior division, the chosen major fields, which may include any vocational, prevocational, or avocational life interests, are to be intensively pursued. Students will live in small, self-governing groups in intimate contact with members of the faculty. Ample personnel counseling of the clinical sort will be provided. The college year will be arranged to allow a long winter recess so that students and faculty may have opportunities for travel and for enjoying the cultural offerings of the metropolitan centers in the mid-winter season, but this does not preclude a summer vacation in July and August. Members of the faculty will be chosen for teaching ability and will be re-appointed after short periods on merit of performance so that the stultifying effects of tenure may not work harmfully.

It is courageous to conceive this college in modern America. The enterprise postulates an interesting answer to some criticisms of higher institutions—the iron-clad fifteen units, point madness, the absurd scorn of some life interests as unworthy of college attention, and so on. The constructive note is the emphasis on the development of individual talents to the point where they will constitute a social contribution. We wish Bennington College a notable success.

ON THE MAKING OF TEXTBOOKS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

L. L. BERNARD

A recent article on current social psychology¹ emphasizes the supposed nonresearch character of textbook writing in this field. It also raises some questions regarding the character of texts which I believe the author has not settled. Perhaps, as one of those who have actually written social psychologies within the last decade, I can throw some light upon the question that will not fall wholly within the field of speculative discussion. In the first place, I should not like to have anything I say interpreted as an argument against the experimental method in any field of science. I believe thoroughly in all forms of experimental and quantitative research and it appears to me to be perfectly clear that the most fruitful development of all science lies in these directions. Certainly all of this experimental material that is usable should be ingested and assimilated by the textbook writers in the field of social psychology. But there are also other factors that should not be neglected in the production of textbooks.

I

In the first place there are two ways of preparing a handbook in social psychology, as in any other science. One is to produce a laboratory manual, citing the more important experimental studies and selecting the most typical simple experiments for repetition in the laboratory. The other method is to summarize the findings of recent and earlier work in social psychology, or as much of it as can be presented or as seems pertinent to the purpose of the author, in a general textbook on the subject. In between these two typical methods of presenting materials in a handbook may be as many intermediate methods as authors may care to utilize. The same possibilities of

¹Gardner Murphy, "A Review of Current Social Psychology," *The Journal of Philosophy*, XXVII (1930), pp. 435-438.

choice are of course also open to teachers of the subject. Which method, or what variation of these two methods, is actually employed by the writer or teacher will of course depend upon (1) the purpose he has in view and (2) whether he is more interested in the exposition of the technique of the method or in the presentation of the results of the methods; that is, of the relevant findings of the science or of a section of the science. In every science we find these two types of workers—those who are concerned primarily, or even exclusively, with the details of methodology, and those who are primarily, or even wholly, interested in the findings of the workers in their field.

It must be recognized that these types are extremes and that each, probably as much as the other, suffers from limitation of viewpoint. The methodologist, especially if he is a strict interpretationist and therefore a rigid experimentalist, is very likely to lose sight of the objectives and products of his science in their larger aspects. He becomes narrowed and perhaps ever more narrowed in his viewpoint, with the result that he is in danger of becoming in the end a mere technician instead of a scientist. I have in mind a biologist who early in his career did some important experimental work on the cultivation of tissues, but who apparently lost the wider view of his work, with the result that he has been almost forgotten as a leader in that field. Other men have been better able to plan research and adjust it to the needs of the various related sciences than he. They have the "outlook" which he lacked or lost. I have been told that this same man, when asked to write a book on the cell declined on the ground that it was too broad a subject for a research man to handle. This is, of course, an extreme case, but it points to a moral. The same moral is indicated by a less extreme example, well known to all teachers of elementary courses in laboratory sciences. Since emphasis upon research methods in the sciences became so strong about thirty years ago, the first courses in most sciences have been turned

into laboratory courses with some explanatory lectures and reading. The result, it is entirely safe to say, is that the average person who comes through such a laboratory course today does not know enough of the general principles and theory of his subject to use it as a basis for further study in some other field, and most students cannot take more than one year in a basic science. My own experience as a teacher of sociology and of social psychology has been that it is necessary for me to teach nearly all of my students the facts of biology that appear to be essential for work in sociology and social psychology, in addition to teaching them those subjects also. They know how to dissect a frog, they have learned a few names and classifications, but they do not know biology. Apparently the laboratory method has not delivered the goods. My purpose here is not to cast aspersions upon laboratory methods and experimental work. I believe in both, but I wonder if they are not more effective in producing research results than in teaching students who are handicapped by a life limited to three score and ten years the principles of a science.

On the other hand, the teacher who desires to get the basic and general principles of his subject over to students in the limited time at his disposal, finds that he can use verbal conditioning more effectively than laboratory demonstration for this purpose. Of course there is danger that what he gains in the amount of material covered and in scope and organization of principles by the use of verbal or logical conditioning may in part be compensated by loss of vividness and of detailed insight and understanding. This compensating loss does, to some extent, occur and marks the greatest weakness of the old ideological methods of teaching. It may, however, be avoided to some extent by mixing the two methods, using the laboratory demonstration largely for illustration and to make concrete the subject matter.

Essentially the same problems arise in textbook writing as in teaching. Shall the book be written primarily as a

demonstration in methodology, or primarily for the purpose of getting over to the student the most important facts and principles of social psychology? The answer to this question depends upon the purpose of the writer. If he wishes to train investigators, he may well emphasize methodology. But even with such a purpose in view, he should not neglect to get over to the student a minimum of consistently organized content or findings, a general survey of the field, in order that the future investigator may have sufficient perspective to recognize an important problem in the field and plan a worth-while investigation. On the other hand, the writer may reflect that only very few students are going to be investigators in the science of social psychology, but that perhaps ninety-nine out of each hundred will take the course for the purpose of understanding human nature and functional human and group relationships. In such a case he may prefer to prepare a textbook that sets forth the results of investigation without much reference to the methods by which these results were achieved. As I look over the recent textbooks in social psychology apparently written from this point of view, I do not get the impression, which the writer referred to above evidently has, that most of them have been constructed in entire or even in relative ignorance of research done in the field. I have before me now four such handbooks written by social psychologists with sociological leanings, and I see everywhere abundant evidence of close familiarity with the literature of investigation and constant reference to the newest findings in the field.

II

I wonder also if this critic may not be laboring under something like a psychological illusion in another respect. Has he allowed himself to judge the extent to which the social psychologists use research materials by the extent to which he finds the experiments reported individually by chapter and page? Here again we must recur to the two ways of writing a textbook referred to above. . . .

Some writers, especially in a new science, appear to consider the textbook as the defender of a point of view. Others regard it as a summary organization of findings that can be relied upon with a reasonable degree of certainty, or at least tentatively. The former procedure will of course require citations at the bottom of the page and numerous supplementary citations in the text. The latter outlook will usually be content with bibliography at the end of the chapters and at the end of the volume, with such references in the text as are necessary to give credit for specific contributions or to recognize variant viewpoints. It may very easily happen that a textbook constructed along the lines of the second procedure mentioned will be the result of much greater familiarity with investigation in the subject, and will be a much fairer and more representative presentation of the field than will a work constructed along the lines first indicated, although the appearance to the superficial reader, or to one who glances at the pages instead of reading them, may be exactly the reverse.

III

Another important consideration that does not appear in the criticism referred to is that an adequate social psychology of the second type mentioned above could not now be written from the materials of experimental research, and perhaps never can be written entirely from such sources. A laboratory manual of the first type could of course be constructed at any time from the experimental materials in existence. . . . There is a vast difference between a treatise based on a limited set of data and one that must cover the whole field of behavior which the experimental data only partly represent. A textbook that is intended to be a treatise on social psychology should, it seems to me, cover the whole range of psychosocial processes or behavior adjustments in society. It so happens that as yet there are experimental data for only a small part of that field. Of course, it is conceivable that a strict par-

tisan of the experimental method might, and probably would, wish to rule out data not obtained by the experimental method, and would prefer to construct a very incomplete textbook, which would from his standpoint be "dependable," rather than seek to have it cover the whole ground at the expense of "experimental accuracy." . . . In the case of social psychology, such a procedure would result in a ludicrously fragmentary treatment.

On the other hand, the opposite procedure of covering the whole field with data of unequal value may expose the writer to the charge of system making at the expense of scientific accuracy. But that is exactly what life does. It cannot wait on the experimental method before it is lived. When experimental data are available for guidance, well and good. If they are not available, the next best data must be used. It would be ridiculous to expect people not to live because they have not experimental data for guidance. Life demands a system of some sort for guidance and completeness. That is why philosophy arose and it is why it will continue until there is something better—experimental data, perhaps—to take its place. It is the business of social science, including social psychology, to explain a phase of life and to give guidance in living, and people who turn to it for such guidance have a right to ask for the best there is available at any time, even though it may not be the best possible interpretation of the field of human behavior. . . .

If one accepts the narrower alternative of putting into a text only those things which conform to one special criterion of validation—say the experimental method—he lays himself open to serious difficulties in addition to the limited character of his product. Who shall decide what is the proper criterion of validation? The experimentalist may naïvely answer that the experimental method is its own justification, because its results can be duplicated by any other worker under the same conditions. I am inclined to think that those who would urge a Methodist, a Catholic, or a Freudian criterion of validation could

make the same argument. If one will put himself in the same attitude of mind as one who urges one or the other of these criteria, he will unquestionably be convinced by the same evidence. Their tests by this token become subjective or traditional, instead of objective and naturalistically measurable. But it must be admitted that they often reach good results through the use of their criteria, and that the experimentalists often draw erroneous conclusions. For myself, I prefer the experimental method, whenever it can be used, because it is nearer to corrected or weighted sensory verification, but I hope I am not naïve enough to think that only experimental sources of guidance to behavior should be used, and that other sources should be discarded, when experimental aid is absent. But the point is that, since the choice of criteria is after all partly a matter of the human equation and never wholly as simple a matter as following the lead of a scientific law, for the experimentalist dogmatically to erect the experimental criterion as final and exclusive is simply in many cases to invite the advocates of the other criteria to erect their own as absolutes. Thus we are developing in this country Catholic science, fundamentalist science, spiritualistic science, Christian science, and, according to some indications, Jewish social science. Possibly such a segmentation of the field of science along lines of cleavage between criteria of validation is to be desired. Possibly it may lead to a practical test of relative utility and promote the survival of the fittest criterion. History, however, does not give much comfort in such matters. If such a theory of the survival of the fittest in the larger sense were true, how could the experimentalist explain the survival of so many cultural absurdities in our day, including the very criteria of validation that oppose his own?

Two direct counts in particular may be brought against a great deal of strictly experimental work as viewed by the social psychologist. Often of necessity the scope of experimental work is too limited to throw much light upon the larger psychosocial processes. Those who would de-

pend upon it almost exclusively show a marked tendency to disregard the wider group aspects of behavior, or what we might call collective behavior processes, and to concentrate upon the mechanisms of individual responses in social situations. Obviously, the experimental method is easier to employ in making data for the individual psychologist's type of social psychology than in covering the subject matter of the social psychology that is more affected by the sociologist. The former sees his subject matter through the individual, while the latter must also look at collective behavior from the angle of the group. The difficulty of subjecting groups, and especially indirect contact groups, to experimental controls is obvious enough.

In the second place, the conditions of the experiment are often necessarily artificial and the results obtained warped or distorted. The control of stimulus-response objects, and especially of people, in an experiment is not the same as the control of inanimate objects. The very control process changes their personalities and hence their responses. The most careful checking and computing cannot remove this fundamental difficulty. The process of the experiment brings a new and powerful set of conditioning factors into the situation, with the result that the responses of the person who is the subject of the experiment are not necessarily made to the stimuli set for him, but to those set about him as controls. One need only reflect on how differently he behaves in "private situations," when he realizes that he may be observed by strangers, from the way he responds when alone or surrounded only by friends, in order to realize the truth of this observation. Indeed, the fact appears to be well enough known to everybody except those who believe that experimental results should always and under all circumstances be taken at their full face value.

Two other secondary difficulties are also very commonly to be met with in connection with experimental data. Much of the so-called experimental work now offered in the field of social psychology is not such at all, but is in the nature

of hypothetical tests, scales, and measures designed to serve as technique in doing experimental work. Some of the journals are literally filled with such measuring devices which are recommended to give dependable results in testing native I.Q.'s, emotional types, racial differences, musical ability, and various other special abilities, bents, skills, personality traits, etc. Those who have observed these measuring devices at work during the past few years or who have endeavored to use them are not unacquainted with their limitations, or at least should not be. In fact, the literature on this very matter of limitations is not inconspicuous, and some of the most important and most convincing criticisms of these techniques have not themselves been experimental, but logical, observational, and statistical. . . .

The second incidental point here follows directly from the first. In many cases the results of experimental measurements and tests in the field of personality and behavior have little control value until they are interpreted. Do the tests of Negroes and of whites by the same scale indicate "native" differences, different habit patterns, or different environments? Or do they indicate something else? The tests themselves will not tell you, however much you prod them or employ them. The answer to your question is always in your interpretation of your numerical results, and your interpretation is not an experimental procedure. It goes back almost always to common sense, to general observation, or to statistical data. In other words, there are other methods besides experimental ones that must be used by any social psychologist, or in fact by any social scientist, who wishes to present conclusions to students or to the public which may be of use to them.

The three checks upon experimentally obtained results mentioned above are not wholly distinct but are closely related. Common sense is just a term to cover accumulated experience, which is likely to have a wider comparative base to rest upon than any single experiment, but which may of course be very defective in accuracy of in-

formation or technique. It is based upon observation and statistical computations and generalizations, as well as upon less reliable elements of tradition, belief, rumor, etc. It is not urged that "common sense" is more accurate, in its technique of judgment, even at its best, than experimentation, but it looks at the problem in hand from a vastly wider angle than the conditions of the experiment. Observation and statistical generalization are but different aspects of the same thing, or we would better say statistical generalization is a refined, quantitative form of observation.² All of these methods, as well as a judicious application of observation by means of the case method technique, and not infrequently the use of carefully controlled logical interpretation and extension, must be employed in securing data and results for social psychology. They must be used both to check the interpretations of the experimenter and re-interpret his data, and to secure data—especially with regard to the wider or collective aspects of behavior—which the experimenter cannot secure by experiment alone, because he cannot produce an adequate technique. It will do no good for the extreme partisan of the experimental method to rule out of the scope of social psychology those problems and subject matters which cannot be handled by experimentation. Life is broader than a single method, and it is the business of science, including social psychology, to offer the best solutions it is able to the questions posed by life. Otherwise science becomes a relatively meaningless and esoteric thing apart from life.

IV

The charge of the critic that the social psychologies still deal with out-of-date themes, such as mobs, crowds, propaganda, public opinion, suggestion, imitation, and instinct, I take to indicate a failure to recognize that there may be two viewpoints in social psychology, each perhaps equally legitimate. Perhaps the critic is here speaking from the standpoint of the psychologist rather than of the social

²See "The Development of Methods in Sociology," *The Monist*, April, 1928, pp. 292-320

scientist; but I suspect that the social psychology which is being developed by the sociologists and which can be used by the social sciences will ultimately prove the more important and the more widely welcomed of the two brands. . . .

Along with this growing interest in social psychology on the part of the psychologists has gone naturally something of a shifting of interest in the subject matter of such courses. The psychologist, as would be expected, deals with the behavior of the individual, and some psychologists who have manifested an interest in social psychology—F. H. Allport, for example—do not seem to be able to see society, groups, institutions, *i.e.*, collective behavior. Their attention is so fully concentrated upon the individual trees that they not only fail to perceive the forest, but they make elaborate arguments that there is no forest, but only trees. Now this display of myopia, which perhaps is partly the result of too close concentration in experimentation upon the individual, serves very well to illustrate the difference in viewpoint—always present, if not always so extreme—between the psychologist and sociologist or social scientist when looking at the field of social psychology. The psychologist has attempted to make social psychology, like individual psychology, a science of individual behavior. He has shown himself rather intolerant of—or perhaps he has merely failed to understand—the social-science viewpoint, which must necessarily take into account collective behavior.

To the social scientist crowds, mobs, propaganda, public opinion, imitation, suggestion, are very decidedly realities. They are social phenomena that must be taken into consideration and dealt with. The social scientist who specializes in social psychology is not unaware that all of these mass or collective behavior phenomena may be dealt with from the standpoint of the individual behavior mechanisms involved, when the individual unit in the collective behavior process is being considered. Every recent writer of a textbook in social psychology from the sociological or social

science standpoint with whose work I am familiar not only understands these individual behavior processes, but also describes them in his book. But, unlike the individual psychologist who writes on social psychology, he does not stop here. He goes on to describe also the collective behavior patterns which are peculiarly the field of interest of social science. Take, for example, the categories "suggestion" and "imitation," which some of the individual psychologists would banish from the vocabularies of the science of social psychology. It is perfectly possible to explain everything that happens in connection with suggestion and imitation in terms of the conditioned response and the conditioning process, as far as the responding individual is concerned. In my own textbook on social psychology I do so explain these behavior processes, but I also recognize that these conditioned responses, which are nothing more to the individual psychologist, frequently occur in such patterns of collective behavior that it becomes necessary to name these collective behavior patterns and to describe this collective behavior. The individual psychologist, with his attention concentrated upon the behaving individual, may fail to see the collective behavior pattern and therefore may deny that it exists. But, really, it is scarcely a good argument to assert that the elephant has no ears because to the blind man, who is in contact only with the trunk, he seems so like a rope.

My surprise is even greater to learn that the subject of instinct is passé in social psychology.³ I admit that it should be. In fact, it occurs to me that nothing short of the rather patent inability of one of our water-tight-compartment sciences to learn anything of importance from another could explain why any social psychologist could still take seriously a classification of human instincts when a discussion of collective behavior is involved. Here again it was the sociologists, finding it necessary to *explain* collective behavior rather than be content with speculating about individual behavior, who were foremost in breaking

³Murphy, *op cit*, p. 436

down this biological superstition inherited from the meta-physical "mental scientists." Curiously, it is the psychologists who have defended the concept even when it was obvious to almost every one else that it was a lost cause. I have been much amused by the deprecatory remarks made by various psychologists commenting on my book, *Instinct*, and various articles criticizing the concept of instinct appearing since 1921. These remarks range from one sarcastic "Bernard knows" to a disdainful "He is a sociologist." Letters from psychologists whose theories of instinct I had criticized were frequently as interesting. When I see McDougall's more recent books extending, rather than contracting, his list of instincts, and when I see the latest social psychology by a psychologist still explaining human behavior on the basis of a hoary theory of instincts as if nothing had been done in the field, I cannot be convinced that the subject is passé, at least among the psychologists. Even yet most of the textbooks in psychology give the concept good standing. On the other hand, I do not know of a single sociologist of marked reputation who uses the concept to explain collective behavior, unless peradventure through a slip of the pen back to an earlier pattern of thinking. Must we lay this difference between the sociologists and the psychologists in dealing with the concept of instinct to the difference in their orientation towards the fields of social psychology, the one trying to explain everything in terms of individual response and the other insisting upon the necessity of viewing the behavior processes from the collective standpoint and from that of environmental conditioning?

This difference of orientation towards the field and subject matter of social psychology is interestingly illustrated by the experience of a social scientist who decided to add a man to his staff to make psychosocial interpretations of community life. This social scientist is a very deliberate man and endeavors to plan his procedure beforehand with much forethought. He consulted a considerable number of people, including the writer, as to whether he should employ

a social psychologist trained from the standpoint of the social sciences as well as in psychology, or whether he should entrust his program to a psychologist pure and simple. Of course he received conflicting advice, but finally the influence of the psychologists prevailed, and he announced that he was convinced that, since the studies he wished to have made were psychological, only a man trained as a psychologist could make them successfully. He employed a man recommended to him by the psychologists. After some years of trial he is not recommending the reappointment of the psychologist, not because he is a poor psychologist, but because his training and viewpoint have not prepared him to grasp the investigational problems of collective behavior that are of significance to the social scientists. The solution of difficulties of this type seems to be in the recognition of the legitimacy and the necessity of two types of social psychology, one of them developed from the standpoint exclusively of individual behavior and the other with regard to both individual and collective behavior.

Finally, it seems to me to be expected that the new research data, whether obtained experimentally or by means of case studies, statistical generalization, or even by more general forms of observation and induction, whether interpreted or uninterpreted, should first be utilized in special treatises dealing with such fields as political organization, the press, child welfare, boys' gangs, neighborhood groups, and the like. It is not alone the magnitude of the task which renders it difficult for a textbook in a science to embody all the results of research in a rapidly growing field, but the necessary conservatism of the text prevents an undue hastening of the process. The teachers of textbooks are usually behind the writers. A textbook must not be too far ahead or out of the reach of the teachers. I have seen excellent textbooks fail simply because they were too good, not because they were too poor. It is also necessary not to be too precipitate in embodying research results which soon may be contradicted by new

data. The difficulty of controlling research processes in social psychology renders the turnover of "fact" in that field somewhat rapid.

That these special treatises should not be called social psychology also is not strange. In the first place, they do not cover the whole field of social psychology. They are named, therefore, after the parts of the field they do cover. There is also a second reason of importance. The newspaper, the popular magazine, the movie, and the radio have so popularized the adulterated thought in our day that the stiffness of a textbook excites a feeling of dread in the emotions of the average intelligent person. Social psychology is a textbook term, and discerning authors keep as far away from textbook titles as possible. I have noted a tendency on the part of textbook writers, editors, and publishers even, to sugar-coat the textbook pills by giving them romantic and dissimulated titles. It is well known that the poor textbooks succeed best. Perhaps those that appear not to be textbooks at all will succeed better—financially speaking.

A STUDY OF THE SOCIAL, VOCATIONAL, AND EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS OF COLLEGE GIRLS

W. G. BINNEWIES

The material for this study was obtained through private interviews held by the directors of two college dormitories with each one of eighty girls who were living there. It is presented solely as a technique and method of study of student problems and is purposely inconclusive.

At the head of each hall is a director, usually an upper-class or graduate student, whose duty it is to attend to the general welfare of the girls under her charge. Each hall houses 40 girls. In order more adequately to discharge these duties by learning just what problems were troubling those under her charge, the director obtained a personal, private interview with each girl late in the fall quarter after she had made her adjustments to college life and had learned her difficulties. A question list was used and each answer was recorded separately.

The cases represent 8 States and vary in age from 17 to 23 years. Two are juniors, 4 are rated as sophomores, and the remaining 74 are freshmen. All are attending college here for the first time. Eight had taught school one to two years, the remainder having entered college directly following their high-school graduation. Twenty came from what may be termed large high schools.

TABLE I
HOME CONDITIONS OF 80 GIRLS, RESIDENTS OF TWO COLLEGE HALLS

<i>Conditions in the home</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Mother deceased, . . .	7	8 75
Father deceased . . .	10	12 50
Both parents deceased . .	3	3 75
Parents separated . .	5	6 25
Parents contentious .	4	5 00
Normal home conditions	51	63 75

At the beginning of each interview the purpose of the study was explained, and in every case the girls responded readily to each question. They seemed greatly interested and talked freely about their difficulties.

Table I presents an analysis of the home conditions of the 80 girls, no two of whom came from the same home.

It will be noted here that 36.25 per cent of the homes represented are abnormal in that they are either broken or nearly so. This may be a conditioning factor in determining the difficulties experienced by the girls while at school

TABLE II
ANALYSIS OF THE EDUCATIONAL DIFFICULTIES STATED BY 80 GIRLS RESIDING
IN TWO COLLEGE HALLS

<i>Difficulties</i>	<i>Difficulties encountered</i>			<i>Total</i>
	<i>In High School</i>	<i>In College</i>	<i>(Specific Aid Given)</i>	
School subjects . .	38	48	(21)	86
Timidity .	34	37	(41)	71
Poor health .	17	14	(25)	31
Poor study methods		29	(8)	29
Lack of standards		25		25
Outside demands	12	8	(3)	20
Conditions at home	10	5	(4)	15
Miscellaneous	4	10	(4)	14
Total .	115	176	(106)	291

It is seen from the above table that the subjects studied and timidity present the greatest difficulties both in high school and college. The difficulties presented by school subjects seemed to be due to a lack of aptitude on the part of the students for certain required subjects both in high school and college; and to inadequate preparation in high school for college work. A wrong choice of subjects due to college requirements is clearly indicated and also a lack of adjustment to college methods of instruction. These caused many students who had been leaders in their high-

school classes to find themselves only average or below in their college work.

Timidity seemed to be due to the awe felt by the student towards the instructor. Generally it was an inferiority complex caused by a fear of failure.

Next to poor health which handicapped about 10 per cent, poor methods of study was found to be one of the greatest difficulties. These students had not acquired efficient study habits in high school and the more strenuous college work made them keenly conscious of this weakness.

When students are away from parental authority for the first time they are often at a loss to know how to use their new freedom. The constant oversight and guidance of their activities both social and academic serves as a standard for their conduct. The check-up of parents or relatives serves as a guide or measuring stick, and report cards place their intellectual achievements with reference to others. Without these checks they are at a loss to know where they are until failure or discipline comes as a shock.

Outside demands, such as social duties, and home conditions which caused worry constitute the next greatest difficulties. These have to do mostly with pledging to sororities, attendance at social functions, or other activities which require time and attention outside of school. Or it may be sickness, financial difficulties, or trouble at home that cause worry, loss of sleep, inability to concentrate on studies, and homesickness.

Table III gives an analysis of the aids suggested to the students as possible remedies for the educational difficulties which they encountered. This advice was given with a sincere desire to help the student out of her dilemmas and in nearly every case was received graciously and with an appreciation for the interest shown. Many students expressed their thankfulness for the assistance in self-analysis given them.

We note here that timidity is the difficulty that is most commonly aided and that, for this, getting acquainted with schoolmates and mingling freely with others in the semi-

TABLE III
AIDS SUGGESTED FOR THE EDUCATIONAL DIFFICULTIES OF GIRLS
RESIDING IN TWO COLLEGE HALLS

<i>Aids Suggested</i>	<i>Difficulties</i>					
	<i>School Subjects</i>	<i>Tim- idity</i>	<i>Poor Health</i>	<i>Home Condi- tions</i>	<i>Poor Study Habits</i>	<i>Total</i>
Home study . . .	1			..		1
Oral class report		11		..		11
Use of syllabus	.			.	1	1
Extracurricular activity		8	..			8
Assistance of instructor	14	.	1		2	17
Psychology of study..	1		.		4	5
Tutor . .	2			.		2
Get acquainted	19		1	.	20
Outside reading, .	1				.	1
Physician, . .			22			22
New study habit .	2	2	4
Repeat course . .	2		.			2
Budget time, . . .	1			..		1
Change climate .		.	2	.		2
Make friends	1	5	.	1		7
Note taking,				.	2	2
Outside work		5	.	.		5
Parent's advice .	1	4		1	.	6
Total .	26	52	25	3	11	117

intimate life of the halls were the aids most commonly suggested. However, the making of oral class reports instead of written ones, thus forcing one's self to speak in public, was believed to be a valuable aid; as was also the engaging in extracurricular activities.

For subject difficulties the assistance of the instructor was most generally suggested. The student was advised to make the acquaintance of her instructor and explain her difficulties with the subject, the thought here being that the instructor might be able to discover the particular impediment and suggest ways of overcoming it.

For poor health the most obvious aid was the advice

of a physician. Many students were found to have undermined their health by improper sleep and eating habits.

Table IV shows when and under whose guidance these students had decided upon their vocation of teaching.

TABLE IV
TIME OF DECISION OF A VOCATION AND UNDER WHOSE GUIDANCE

<i>Vocation selected with assistance of</i>	<i>Number of selections made in</i>				
	<i>Elementary School</i>	<i>Junior High</i>	<i>High School</i>	<i>After High School</i>	<i>Total</i>
Parents	7	4	5	1	17
Teachers	5	2	4	1	12
Others	2	1	3	1	7
More than one of above		2	1	1	7
No one	14	3	20		37
Total	28	12	36	4	80

The outstanding fact here is that 37 of the 80 girls (46 per cent) chose their vocations without assistance from any one. There was no definite vocational guidance in these cases. The choice of a like work was made entirely alone and was more or less accidental. That parents had more influence than teachers in the selection of a vocation is another interesting point. It is also significant that 35 per cent selected their vocations during their elementary-school experience, and half of these made their choice without assistance.

The question arises as to why so great a number of this group chose their vocations so early. Evidently the element of vocational guidance had not entered in and the girls had decided upon teaching because it seems to the average student to be the vocation for which she is already trained.

An analysis of the social difficulties encountered by the girls was also made. They were asked to describe their greatest handicaps to social success both in college and

outside. For these definite aids could be suggested in most cases which would help the student to overcome the difficulty. This is shown in Table V.

TABLE V
ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIAL DIFFICULTIES OF 80 GIRLS RESIDING IN TWO
COLLEGE HALLS AND THE AIDS SUGGESTED

<i>Social Difficulty</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Aids Suggested</i>				
		<i>Social Life</i>	<i>New Associ- ates</i>	<i>Learn to Dance</i>	<i>Advice of Phy- sician</i>	<i>Extra- curricu- lar</i>
Poor health ..	3	.			2	1
Timidity	26	10	8	6		2
Self-consciousness .	37	17	9	9		2
Financial.	9					
Parent's attitude. .	10		.		.	.
Miscellaneous .	10	.	1		1	..

It is, of course, obvious here that little or no aid could be suggested for the attitude of parents or financial difficulties. On the other hand self-consciousness and timidity which ranked so high could well be counteracted by active participation in the social life of the halls and the college life in general. Life in the halls consisted in both formal parties and receptions and the general fun and frolic incident to the periods before study hours and at week-ends. Many of these timid girls kept to their rooms and would not enter into the general social life.

The experiment as a whole has proved very enlightening and many insights into the background of student life have been gained which otherwise might never have come to our knowledge. The author feels that this is all too much neglected in our high schools and colleges. After all it is not so much what the student learns of content subjects that conditions his success in life as it is the self-mastery and knowledge of society. It appears that this is a sadly neglected field in our educational procedure.

To the two directors of the halls who had the girls in charge the study was particularly worth while. They are training themselves to become deans of girls and this study aroused in them a desire to do more than be watchdogs on the girls' conduct. One said "the value of these interviews to me was beyond my expectation. They gave me an understanding of the girls' inner selves that I had not dared to hope for. After the interviews were started many girls asked for them. They were greatly interested and talked freely."

The particular value of this procedure, outside of the help rendered the students, was due to the keeping of a record of all questions asked, answers received, and help given. By following a definite outline the interview was relieved of most of that haphazard reliance on memory and subjective judgment that frequently vitiates such attempts.

It is planned to follow up this study towards the end of the year to determine the results of the aids suggested. Without such a follow-up study the experiment would be inconclusive.

INTERVIEWING THE PROBLEM BOY

R. L. WHITLEY

I

Interviews with a number of problem and delinquent boys reveal the fact that these boys have very decided attitudes towards their problems, towards the way they are treated, and that they have wishes which, in most cases, are well formulated in their minds. They live in a social world that is colored with their varied contacts in the street, in the yard, in the vacant apartment, in the boys' club, in the home. They have their groups, their leaders, their own methods of social control, their own definitions of status, and a set of attitudes which function with reference to their environment and with reference to the adult world with which they often come into conflict. Their days are filled with experiences which to them are vital—caring for their pigeons, stealing "election wood," robbing fruits from pushcarts, playing stickball, shooting craps, working for a few pennies with which to attend the movies or to buy bread for the family cupboard, hiding from the truant officer, avoiding cops, attending boys' clubs, or participating in clubs and gangs of their own. Out of this milieu of conflict and experience, attitudes, wishes, and conduct of one kind or another emerge.

In understanding the conduct of a boy who comes into conflict with social patterns, one can gain much from taking from him a statement of his experiences and attitudes.¹ From such a statement, one may become familiar with his social background and experience as he sees it, with his attitudes and wishes, and with his conception of the rôle he plays. One can see his problem behavior as he sees it, his own reasons for his behavior, and can become familiar with other experiences and attitudes which are likely to bring the boy often into conflict with socially defined standards. The boy's reaction to institutions with which he

¹These methods have been worked out in connection with the Boys' Club Study of New York University

comes into contact may be discovered, as well as his statement of experiences which are satisfying or unsatisfying to him there, his reaction to methods of control, and his wishes and how they are conditioned or thwarted in such institutions. One can understand how the situation is defined for him, both by his own friends and associates and by the adult world, and can discover a wide variety of attitudes and behavior prevalent in the communities with which the boy is familiar. It is also possible to see how formal education, as carried on by the school, functions with reference to the boy's attitudes and experiences as he sees them.²

In securing the problem boy's own story, it is necessary to gain his confidence. The situation in which he recounts his experiences must be made pleasant for him; restraints must be removed; any suspicion or fear which he entertains towards the interviewer or towards the institution which he is seen as representing must be eliminated. The reason the interviewer is interested in securing the boy's story must be supplied, a reason which will be sufficient for the boy himself. In creating a situation in which any barriers or suspicion which may exist between the boy and the interviewer are removed, it is necessary to proceed carefully. The explanation given a boy as to why he is being interviewed is dependent upon his age, his intelligence, and his experience. For boys from 13 to 19 years of age, about normal or slightly below normal in intelligence, the following statement usually suffices: "I am interested in working with boys. I want to teach them in school and work with them in boys' clubs. But in order to do this I must know what boys think and what they like to do. Boys have been helping me by telling me the kind of games they like to play, the kind of school they like, the kind of teachers they like, the kind of movies they like to see. I also want to

²Clifford R. Shaw's study of a delinquent boy (*The Jack Roller*, Chicago. The University of Chicago Press, 1930) demonstrates not only how the delinquent boy's story may be used in understanding the boy's behavior but also how it may be used in helping him to work out an adjustment for himself. Shaw says: "In our study and treatment of delinquent boys in Chicago, we have found that the 'own story' reveals useful information concerning at least three important aspects of delinquent conduct: (1) the point of view of the delinquent, (2) the social and cultural situation to which the delinquent is responsive, and (3) the sequence of past experiences and situations in the life of the delinquent" (p. 3).

know why boys get into trouble so that I can help them. I thought you might help me, and so I called for you. Do you want to tell me about these things?" When the boy assents, the interviewer continues, "Suppose you tell me the kind of games you like to play." The boy then proceeds to talk, and the interviewer asks him questions about his games. When he has finished talking about games, the interviewer questions him about his boys' club experiences, contacts with boys' organizations, gangs, and similar experiences. From a discussion of these, the interviewer leads to school experiences, problem behavior, habits, family life, and such other information as he is interested in securing.

Much of the most significant material secured from the boy is that which he utters spontaneously as a result of a conflict or contact with his associates or with the adult world. In such cases, the attitudes with which the boy met these experiences are well formulated in his mind, and represent, at the time of the occurrence or shortly after, the response of his personality to the situations in question. Once the interviewer has secured rapport with the boy, he will have no difficulty gaining such reactions. It is more important for the boy to represent the situation as he sees it than to give a version of what he thinks the adult to whom he addresses himself will approve.

In the interview situation, the boy generally volunteers information which the interviewer does not think of soliciting. In such cases, the interviewer stimulates the boy to talk freely. In the interview a schedule is used. If the interviewer, after his first contact with the boy, feels that it would not be advisable to use the schedule in the boy's presence, he checks against the schedule after the interview to see that every point is covered, and questions the boy in further interviews about items overlooked. Familiarity with the items listed is important. The schedule is never followed slavishly, but is adapted to the needs of the particular situation. The schedule is used in order that the items listed will be covered for all boys interviewed.

With older delinquent boys, the schedule is never shown because of the fact that they might become suspicious. With younger boys, who show no resistance to the interviewer, the schedule is used in order to facilitate the process of securing their stories.

The boy's story is taken down on a typewriter as he talks.³ When he starts talking, the interviewer says to him, "You don't mind if I write while you talk, do you?" The boy does not mind, and the interviewer writes down his discourse. Of course, it is impossible to secure a verbatim report of everything that is said, such as comments and questions of the interviewer, but practically everything that the boy himself says is reported. Much of the boy's statement is secured verbatim. In most interviews, the boys dictate their stories to the interviewer, who can follow their discourse on the typewriter. When this is not possible, the interviewer reports the boy's story in words as like those he used as possible. In complete interviews with fifty-five boys, and in contacts with fifteen more, no opposition has been met in taking their stories in this manner. This method eliminates the necessity of the interviewer's relying on his memory for a report of the boy's statements, and adds concreteness to the report of the boy's experiences and attitudes, which are generally reported in terms of concrete social situations.

In some cases, information is secured with difficulty when interviewing a boy alone. In such cases, one or more of his friends are invited in. When questions are asked the boys, or when suggestions are made by the interviewer, the boy's friends volunteer information. The boy reacts to this form of suggestion and reveals much that he would not otherwise reveal, either adding to what his friends have said in cooperation with them, or reacting against the suggestions made by them and in this way creating a situation in which the boys state frankly experiences shared in com-

³If the interviewer has access to an ediphone, he may use it to great advantage. In interviewing boys with this machine, he may record his own questions and responses as well as the responses of the boy. The only difficulty to be encountered is in gaining rapport with the boy in order that he will not mind having his spontaneous responses recorded. Interviews with a number of boys, however, have demonstrated that this difficulty may be overcome.

mon. This disposition of his friends to talk generally induces the boy himself to speak with frankness. Often such a situation takes the nature of a conflict between the boys, in which each is interested in showing the other up to disadvantage. The interviewer reports this discourse while it is going on. He can later question the boy further, when he is alone, about such material. The boy usually responds without inhibitions when approached thus.

To check against the accuracy of statements made by the boy, various methods are used. His friends⁴ are asked about him, about the things he reports himself as doing, and their statements are recorded. People who know him, teachers, family, neighbors, etc., are also questioned in the same manner. Objective facts given by the boy may be checked by the interviewer by observation. The boy can be interviewed on identical points at different times, and the agreement or disagreement of separate reports with each other noted. It is not always possible to report on the typewriter everything that the boy says. Often he is observed in a natural situation, in which he is interacting with friends, relatives, associates, or teachers, and in these cases, the interviewer or observer must report from memory. This method may be used, however, to check against the boy's statements. Even though every fact given by the boy cannot be checked for truthfulness, the story he gives is nevertheless important. It is important because it gives the boy's statement as to how he would like to appear (his conception of the rôle he plays); because he recounts experiences as he sees them, experiences which he has had or would like to have; because he reveals conflicts over various problems; because he indicates his reaction to the

⁴The boy whose story is reported here always has at least one bosom pal with whom he associates continually. When I first met him, his friend was Jimmie. Later his friend was Nick. He had two other friends in school. His friend Jimmie got his working papers and left school. Charles ceased to "run" with Nick when they were put in different classes in school. His third association was broken up when his friend was sent away to an institution. His fourth friendship was in good standing when I saw him last at school. With these friends he played truant, ran about the building without permission, and got in various kinds of trouble with his teachers. His teachers think he is the active agent in these associations, inducing the other boys to share his misconduct. It is interesting to note that since he has discontinued his association with Nick, the latter has caused no more trouble in school. I asked Nick one day if he still ran out of school, and he said, "I don't go on the hook any more, I don't run with Charles." There are other factors influencing Nick's change, however, as well as this one.

Needless to say all names are fictitious and the material is disguised.

treatment given him by society; because he reveals interests and wishes which are important in understanding his behavior and in adjusting him. Much of the material given by the boy he has no reason to lie about. Furthermore, boys who manifest problems of a particular kind in school may be compared with boys who do not manifest those problems. Interviews secured from boys in a given institution, boys who come from the same section of the city, when compared with each other, present significant differences.

Given below are portions taken from the story of a boy interviewed.⁵ The discussion following is classified to illustrate a few of the interpretations that may be given to such data.

1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

When I was interviewing Jimmie, he told me that he wanted to bring his friend Charles. During the first contact with Charles, I interviewed Jimmie, and allowed Charles to remain in the room. Later, I began the interview with Charles in the presence of Jimmie.

When Charles was interviewed today about his life, he seemed not to remember much that has happened to him in the past, and talked with no assurance about any of the things that he had done except those which had occurred in the immediate past. His story follows:

"I started to school when I was three years old. I liked it pretty fair." He offered little information about his school experiences and his past life at this time. When I asked him about the hangout of his crowd, however, I got a better response.

His club hangs out . . . in a cellar. They pay five dollars a month for rent. The name of the club is the Pleasure Boys. Charles is secretary of the club. "The boys can't get into the club until they ring the bell from the outside. If some one gets in who is not a member, they all hide. If it is a cop, he will know that it is the club. They have a lot of cops down there, Pugnose, Reilly, Bulldog, Squarehead. Some guy knocked a bottle on his head, and he has a gold plate there now (Squarehead). He doesn't fool around with the kids any more. This happened about six months ago. Squarehead wanted to "wreck us." He put two bullets in the lock of the door, busted it, but didn't find none of us. He didn't want us

⁵For identifying data on this boy, see R. L. Whitley, "The Observation of the Problem Boy," *JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*, February 1930.

kids to be together. We hadn't done nothing. We have fun with the cops. Every Sunday night they come down here. We have three decks of cards, and every week we buy a carton of cigarettes.

"We broke up the Thirteen Thieves. Nobody wanted to obey the orders. We had three empty rooms. We had soda, candy, and everything under there. We used to play cards for drinks. We don't play cards at the other club for drinks. We play for fun. We play seven and a half for money. Take you get a card and the rest of the boys get a card. And 'spose you get a picture card, say I pull for a nickle or a dime. If you get a seven, you say, 'seven and one half,' and if the dealer hasn't got a seven, the dealer has to give you the deal and a dime. If he gives you a two, and you say, 'I stick,' that means you don't want no more cards. If the dealer is busted, like a five and another five, you get a dime off him, or anything you bet for. Pay the dealer when you have a six and he has a seven; you say, 'I stay,' and if he has a seven you pay him.

"We play poker. Like I got two pairs, and seven of diamonds is running wild, and then like you have three of a kind, then you can say that you have four of a kind when the seven of diamonds is running wild. You say, 'I see you for a nickle,' and this guy says a dime over, and then you say a dime better. I lost \$.45 yesterday and then I quit. Sometimes I give them. I hold seven of diamonds under my hand. They don't do nothing to me because they don't see me. You have to be wise. They would do nothing to you if they see you, they just say, 'Put that card back.' I win most times. If the game is a big game, you can win five dollars, ten. The most I ever won was twelve dollars on last Easter Day. We were shooting with dices down in the backyard. I gave all of the money to my mother. She only gave me a dollar and a half for the whole day. I won on only fifty cents. I had him down to fifteen dollars, I gave him three dollars, and then I quit. I didn't tell my mother how I got the money. She hits me. She don't want me to play. The whole two of them (father and mother) make me obey. My brother beats me most, the tall one. Once in a while, he hits me when I do wrong.

"Now we only got fifteen members in the club. Johnnie is leader. My brother belongs but is nothing in it. They don't want him. We got a vice president, that I am. The treasurer is Mike de Irish." He gave names of some boys, whom I later met. I then asked him if they ever rob. "We don't do that stuff no more. I won't allow them to do it. If they do that they spoil our club. The boss wouldn't make us stay down there no more. The boss is—I don't know his name." There were seventy-five members in the Thirteen Thieves. He says there are only two members in the club that used to be in the

Thieves. "My club had thirty-five members in it, at the Boys' Club."

The Cowboys A. C. was the name of his club at the Boys' Club. "I been going to the Boys' Club since they built it. I don't go no more. I got disgusted of it. I don't feel like going any more. . . . The boys never used to pay dues. I was almost the only guy who used to pay dues. The leader was pretty fair. I hated that guy who was president. 'Don't pay dues,' he said. So I left the Club. I didn't want to get disgraced in the Club. They say, 'This Club is no good.'" Charles says he was the only one who paid, the rest trying to get by without paying. "Sure, they got money to pay dues—they just don't want to. I was the only guy that was sorry that we got chucked. The rest didn't care. . . . One of them tried to get back into the Club again. I don't want to go no more. I got my own club over there, we go swimming down the dock."

Jimmie and Bill had come in shortly before, and were listening.

Jimmie: "I am going to be a member of his club (meaning the club outside the Boys' Club)."

Charles (to Bill): "We don't want you, rat. We gotta couple of pieces of cheese down there"

Bill: "I don't wanna go. I go with my own guys where they hang out. Your guys want to eat for nothing. . . . I tried to sneak in the show only once and got caught"

Jimmie: "I tried it once and I got caught. At the Boys' Club I like to swim, the gym, play pool."

Charles: "They all rats, almost. Only the Bats A. C. The Wildcats [Jimmie's club] are about the worstest. [Blows between Charles and Jimmie, with no animosity displayed.] My club was the worstest in there."

"The Sailor Boys, that's our baseball team. We play baseball and stickball. We play in the park. We play baseball every Sunday. We haven't started playing this season. Sometimes I play with the Indians. We play stickball in the street. My brother's club is in . . . building on the first floor. My brother is the president and the treasurer. He's got the books, how much they collect, how much they don't, when they pay rent, when they don't. There was a lot of peoples up at the racket. I was stewed up there. They are big boys and men [in his brother's club]. My brother puts me in the club. I get double off my money. I put in half a dollar a week, and get double my money at the end of the year. [Another brother has a club.] They play pool, poker, cards. They bet on them. I don't go there. Too little. If the cop catches me, he says 'What are you doing in there?' Cops don't say nothing to the big guys. They give them some money and say, 'Shut up.'"

Charles, Jimmie, and Leon were in the interview room today.

Charles: "I am a member of an athletic club. There are big boys in it. We break into boxing matches. Tell them your father is wishing you to be a boxer, and they match you up. They play basketball, football, tennis. Last night my club had a play. Last night my brother and another guy robbed 375 oranges. They got them from a truck. They were riding on the truck. The fellow told them to get a box of pears, but he got a box of oranges." "What would your father do if he knew?" "He would murder my brother. My father says, 'Anything you want, ask for it.' My brother says, 'Other people's stuff tastes more sweeter.'" "How does your father punish you?" "He kicks. Most of them [his nationality] whip by kicking with their feet. They kick you in the belly."

Leon: "My dad is too old to punish me. My brother hits me when I deserve it."

Charles (in answer to the question, what does your father punish you for?): "When I don't help him on the pushcart. I feel sleepy on Saturday morning, and that's why I don't. When I do something bad. When I disobey. When I don't want to go out and throw away the dirt. He wants me to run the garbage elevator every morning. I don't like to run it when I'm downstairs, because I have to turn it."

Nine months after the first interview. This refers only to the two following paragraphs.

Charles said today that before his mother died, she called each one of her children into the bedroom and blessed them. She knew that she was going to die. Charles said that his mother had a great many friends around the block. He said that before his mother's death a great many people came to the house every day. Since his mother's death, nobody comes to see his family. He also said that his father used to own five pushcarts. Since his mother's death all of the men who worked on the pushcarts have left the father. Before his mother's death, she slipped three or four dollars a week to each of the men on the side. Since her death, the men have said to the father, "And what! are we going to work for you, that you pay us so little!" Therefore, they all quit since his mother is no longer alive to slip them money on the side. Charles said that his mother had a very big funeral. It cost over \$1,500.

When I was interviewing a boy today, I asked him what he would like to have if he could have one wish granted. The boy asked for an automobile. Charles, who was present, said, "And you would ask for that. I would ask that my mother could live!"

The boys were asked about going to church, whereupon Charles said, "I don't go every Sunday." "How often do you go?" "About three times a year I go on Palm Sunday, and on Christmas, maybe. Maybe I never go. I like to go, but I ain't got no time. I work for a living. I have to make money. I'm getting old. I have to think of marriage. In confession, they tell you, 'Don't rob, don't steal, don't play doctor [have intercourse with girls]'"

Interviewer "Do you have a gang now?"

Charles. "I still got a gang. They come up here. They want to wreck this place. I am the leader, and we have thirty-five in it . . . How would it be if I bring some of my fellows out to see you? They would take everything out of your house. Sometimes, I will bring about five of the best ones. We meet in vacant lots and backyards. We have secrets. We have girls that come down to our shack. The girls like to play. We don't pay them anything. I spend ten cents on them and then I send them away. I put the money in the team. We rob. We scatter ourselves. One goes east, one goes west, one goes north, one goes south. They bring in the stuff that they rob. We rob anything, fruit, bananas, apples, pears. They bring in the stuff that they rob and we eat it . . . I sit down in the shack alone with cigarettes. They hit five times to open the door. If they hit less than five times, I won't open it.

"We built the room ourselves. I was the carpenter. . . . The cops never catch us. Sometimes, we don't go home, we sleep in the shack. We have thirty-five regular members. We were going camping next Saturday, but we lost all our money.

. . . All of the fellows in the gang go to the boys' club. They like my gang best. My gang is known all over. We have the cops sleeping down there. They don't want to stay out in the cold. We go out with bottles and buckshots when we fight. I hit a guy in the leg last night. We have two guns in the shop, under the bricks [bebe guns]. We have buckshots in them. We were fighting because they tried to tear up our shack."

Jimmie and Charles were present in this interview.

Charles "I belong to the fighting club. I am fighting on Saturday night. I am going to fight a boy—he's my size. He's two pounds ahead of me. I like to box with him. . . . My big brother is a fighter. He's breaking me in. We get blue pins and all that for fighting. My father wants me to be a boxer. My brother had 31 fights. One he lost by decision. The rest of the fights he won by knockouts and decisions." The brother told me that he had once been interested in boxing, but that he had quit because his mother did not want him to fight in the ring.

Charles likes the movies. He saw Lon Chaney in "West of Zanzibar." "And I saw the picture about Scotchmen. There was a Scotchman, he wanted to marry a fat lady. Why does the Scotchman want to marry a fat lady? Because she eats a little bit." The word Scotchman means to this boy a stingy person. "I saw 'Old Arizona' And I saw an act what a woman and a man, a man was lifting up the woman with one hand." The actors and actresses that he likes best are Charles Farrell, Richard Talmadge, Tom Mix, Buck Jones, Dustin Farnum, Clara Bow (Oh, boy!), Rudolph Valentino. He likes boxing pictures. The things that he sees in the shows which he likes to do are, "I like to kiss girls. I like to hug them. I like to squeeze them."

Another interviewer secured the following information from him. Whenever he goes to the movies, he always tries to pick up girls. He succeeds quite often, he says, a fact to which Jimmie testifies. When asked what he does, he says that he only tries to feel them and kiss them. He sits down beside a girl and starts the conversation. Then he puts his arm around her. He was asked what he would do in case a girl were to "smack him," to which he replied, "You don't know the girls around my block!"

Today, Charles was talking about games, when I asked him what he liked to play, he said that he liked baseball, football, basketball, punch and judy. "I like fifty scandals and one hundred per cent best. We play like we have fifty men, they go and hide, and then we catch them. With girls, I play doctor." I asked him how he plays doctor, and he said, "I play like I am the doctor and the girl is the nurse." He didn't want to say much more about this. I pressed the point, and Jimmie, who was with him, said, "It's bad, what you put down on that paper." "Well, I will not put it down," I replied. "Now tell me how you play the game of doctor." Charles didn't say anything, and Jimmie volunteered, "I know what he means." "Well, what does he mean?" "How can you have kids if you don't play doctor?" Charles finally responded. "Me and a girl go down the cellar and play doctor, and sometimes other girls come and say, 'You quit playing doctor down there.'" Jimmie also says that he plays doctor sometimes. Charles admits that he masturbates and that he engages in homosexual practices.

The material here presented indicates a few of the considerations of importance in understanding the behavior of a boy who presents problems. That there are limitations embodied in relying to too great an extent on such

material (as Read Bain has suggested)⁴ in analyzing the boy's conduct, no one will deny, but such material certainly should not be ignored. A boy may not actually engage in all forms of behavior that he says he does, but the fact that he says he has had certain experiences (not once but several times in different situations) reveals phases of his background and attitudes worthy of further investigation. Stealing and sex attitudes and experiences which are revealed above may be overcome by the boy as he grows older, or they may get him into further difficulties. The problem of adjustment, in this relation, has two aspects: the one relating to his adjustment to the groups and gangs that are vital to him as a boy at his particular age; and the other relating to the larger social world which often defines such forms of behavior in totally different terms from those used by the groups in which the boy, supposedly, is adjusted.

There remain to be discussed other interpretations which may be given to material secured from the boy. These interpretations, which include a consideration of the boy's attitudes and interests as they relate to specific situations, of the boy's conception of his rôle, of his attitude towards the conduct that has been defined for him as problem behavior, of the function of the institution in relation to his training, and of statements of his associates about him, will be discussed in an article to appear in the November issue.

⁴Read Bain, "The Validity of Life Histories and Diaries," *JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*, November 1929

FURTHER STUDY OF THE SOCIAL STATUS OF OCCUPATIONS¹

HARVEY C. LEHMAN and PAUL A. WITTY

The factors which influence a child's vocational ambition are numerous and subtle. The problem of discerning motivation is complicated by the fact that several motives frequently operate simultaneously in causing the individual to select a given occupation. Obviously, it is difficult, when simultaneous stimulation occurs, to evaluate accurately the weight of the several motives in effecting occupational choice. Nevertheless, some motives are quite clearly revealed in the responses of a child when he is questioned regarding his occupational preference. One factor of considerable importance in determining a child's vocational ambition appears to be the esteem which the occupation is given by society. Counts has pointed out that certain occupations receive a much higher social rating than do others.² The importance of this intangible reward of an occupation must be recognized. "In our society, in spite of what is said about the dignity of labor, many occupations which are necessary to the promotion of the common good are stamped as unworthy and are thus given an essentially negative social standing."³ Counts indicated also that children often look forward to professional endeavor largely because they recognize the prestige which is attached to certain occupations.

As a means of ascertaining the judgments of school children regarding the esteem in which various occupations are held, the writers gave the Lehman vocational-attitude quiz to a large number of school children in Topeka, Kansas, and in Kansas City, Missouri. The total number of individuals from whom data were obtained is indicated in Table I (*see* page 108)

¹This study presents some findings that have been made possible by a grant from the Social Science Research Council

²George S. Counts, "The Social Status of Occupations: a Problem in Vocational Guidance," *The School Review*, XXXIII (January, 1925), p. 26

³*Ibid.*, p. 27

The vocational-attitude quiz consists of a comprehensive and catholic list of 200 occupations. First, the children are asked to check *only* those occupations in which they are willing to engage as life work. They are then asked to indicate: (1) the three occupations which they would like best to follow, (2) the one occupation which they most likely will follow, (3) the three occupations which they believe are the best money-makers, (4) the three occupations which they believe are most respected, and (5) the three occupations which they believe will require the least effort.

Table II (*see* page 109) presents the order of merit (frequency rank) of occupations which boys of 8½ to 18½ years of age stated that they think are respected most. Table III (*see* page 109) gives similar occupations which the girls thought were most respected.

Table II is to be read as follows: the work of "Doctor (physician, surgeon, or specialist)" is the one occupation in the entire list that was most frequently checked by boys of all ages except 9½ as the most respected occupation. This occupation was fifth in order of merit for boys of age 9½. A blank space in the table signifies that the particular occupation was mentioned by an exceedingly small number of pupils and a rank therefore was not assigned to it. Tables II and III show the ranks only of the most frequently mentioned occupations or workers for each age group. Those of equal frequency are given the same rank but, contrary to the usual custom, no ranks are omitted except in instances in which few or no children checked the occupation.

Inspection of Tables II and III reveals interesting facts

1. The physician's work stands at the top of the list for both sexes at practically every age level. Eighteen of the 22 age groups indicated that the physician belongs to the most highly respected occupational group. Figure 1 (*see* page 110) sets forth the percentages of boys and of girls of various age levels who asserted that the occupation of the

physician is one of the three most highly respected occupations. Figure 1 shows that the percentage of children responding in this manner increases markedly with increase in chronological age. At ages $16\frac{1}{2}$ to $18\frac{1}{2}$ inclusive, this occupation easily outranks all others in the respect accorded it by the children.

2. Banking was given rank 2 by the boys and rank 3 by the girls. Six of the 11 groups of boys gave rank 2 to banking and 7 of the 11 groups of girls gave rank 3 to this occupation. The percentages of boys and of girls who expressed a belief that banking is one of the three most highly respected occupations are presented in Figure 2 (*see* page 111). Figure 2 shows that a slightly larger percentage of boys than of girls listed banking among the three most highly respected occupations. The sex difference in this regard is, however, not large.

3. At ages $8\frac{1}{2}$ to $12\frac{1}{2}$ inclusive, the minister was respected somewhat more by the boys than by the girls. At ages $13\frac{1}{2}$ to $17\frac{1}{2}$ inclusive, an opposite situation was found; the girls of these ages gave the minister a somewhat higher rank than the boys. Data in terms of percentages are presented in Figure 3 (*see* page 111). These data show that on the whole a larger percentage of girls than of boys placed the minister's work among the three most highly respected occupations, and that a sex difference appears with (or shortly after) the onset of adolescence, *e.g.*, at age of $13\frac{1}{2}$. According to these data adolescent girls respect the minister more than do adolescent boys.

4. Many other items in the quiz also called forth responses which clearly indicate sex differences in attitude. For example, "Aviator" was never ranked lower than 7 by any group of boys and never higher than 9 by any group of girls. At the three lowest age levels, *e.g.*, ages $8\frac{1}{2}$, $9\frac{1}{2}$, and $10\frac{1}{2}$, aviation does not occur among the 20 occupations which the girls consider to be most respected. The boys of these three ages on the other hand never gave aviation a rank lower than 3. Figure 4 (*see* page 112)

shows that at every age level a much larger percentage of boys than of girls placed aviation among the three most respected occupations and that aviation is given the highest rank in this respect by adolescent boys; *e.g.*, by boys of ages $12\frac{1}{2}$ to $14\frac{1}{2}$ inclusive

5. The boys' list of highly respected occupations (*see* Table II) includes chiefly those which boys appear willing to enter. Similarly, the girls' list (*see* Table III) seems to include occupations which girls would willingly enter. For example, the vocation "Nursing" appears near the middle of the girls' list, but this was not listed among the 26 types of work which the boys think are most highly respected. This seems to indicate that children's reports of their esteemed occupations are influenced appreciably by the opportunity which the children have to follow the occupations

6. The foregoing remark is well illustrated by the fact that the boys' list includes only one type of teaching endeavor; namely, that followed by the college professor. The girls' list includes not only this profession, but three additional types of teaching endeavor; namely, "Teaching in the grades or rural schools," "Teaching in high school," and "Kindergarten work."

7. The girls listed twice as frequently as the boys occupations which may demand or involve aesthetic or artistic aptitude or appreciation. Seven workers of this type were mentioned by the girls; namely, Musician, Artist (oil paintings, etc.), Singer, Writer (novels, magazine articles, etc.), Poet, Sculptor, and Movie Actor or Actress. The boys on the other hand indicated respect for four workers only which may be said to require aesthetic ability or appreciation; namely, Musician, Movie Actor or Actress, Artist, and Architect.

COMPARISON WITH COUNTS'S STUDY

In the January, 1925 number of *The School Review*, Counts reported a study of the social status of occupations

The essential differences between Counts's procedure and that of the present writers are the following: (1) the writers asked their subjects to identify the *three* most highly respected occupations among a list of 200, whereas Counts asked his subjects to *rank* 45 *occupations* in order of their social standing; (2) the writers' subjects were city children living within a rather restricted geographical area; Counts's subjects on the other hand, were living in somewhat widely separated geographical areas; (3) the writers studied a much larger number of subjects of more varied chronological ages; Counts's subjects on the other hand were fewer in number and were more mature; (4) the writers have partitioned their data on the bases of chronological age and sex; Counts did not take account of age and sex differences in reporting his findings.

Since Counts's investigation was made and reported by techniques differing from those employed by the writers, direct comparison of the two sets of findings is not possible. The responses of Counts's high-school seniors and the writers' age groups $17\frac{1}{2}$ and $18\frac{1}{2}$ may be compared with some accuracy and reliability.

It should be stated now that Counts's findings coincide in general with those which are herein presented. Both studies reveal that the banker, the physician, and the college professor rank relatively high in public esteem. It will be of interest, nevertheless, to examine the outstanding differences in the results of the two studies.

Unlike Counts's finding, the present data indicate that the physician is much more highly respected than is either the college professor or the banker. The reader may readily discern the children's attitudes towards the physician and the banker by inspecting Figures 1 and 2. These figures show clearly that the children respect the physician more than the banker.

This respect is most definitely and frequently indicated at the *highest age levels*. When Figures 1, 2, and 3, are studied carefully, it is apparent that the doctor far exceeds

the banker and the minister (the children's second and third choices) in the respect accorded by *older* children.

Particularly noticeable is the fact that the college professor was esteemed little by these children (*see* Tables II and III). In one age group only did as many as 10 per cent of children report that the college professor was one of the three most respected workers.

One of the purposes of Counts's study was to obtain information pertaining to the social standing of the teaching profession.

The most obvious conclusion to be drawn from an examination of the facts in Table I is that, on the whole, the various teaching occupations are given high ranks. The college professor is ranked second, the superintendent of schools seventh, the high-school teacher tenth, the elementary-school teacher thirteenth, and the rural-school teacher nineteenth.⁴

Tables II and III show that the oldest age groups studied by the writers gave the college professor an average rank of 6 (the girls ranked it 7, the boys ranked it 5). This difference in rank between Counts's finding and that of the present writers may be accounted for in part by the fact that Counts's subjects ranked the college professor's work among 45 occupations only; the children that were studied by the present writers ranked this occupation among 200 occupations.

It was stated above that Counts did not partition his data according to sex. When the data are so partitioned, an interesting difference appears. The girls of age 18½ gave the high-school teacher a rank of 10 in esteem, the boys of the same age gave the high-school teacher a rank of 50! At ages 16½, 17½, and 18½, inclusive, the girls gave "teaching in the grades or rural schools," a rank of 28. The boys of the same ages gave this occupation a rank of 66! If the responses of the children are reliable, this finding seems to indicate that at ages 16½, 17½, and 18½, the girls regard only 27 occupations as conferring higher social distinction than does "Teaching in the grades

⁴*Op cit*, p. 22

or rural schools," and that at these ages the boys regard no less than 65 occupations as more highly esteemed than "Teaching in the grades or rural schools."

A part of the foregoing sex difference is undoubtedly due to the fact that the children tended to respond to the quiz partly in terms of the vocations which were uppermost in their minds; e.g., vocations towards which they were looking forward to entering. The sex differences are nevertheless very significant. Moreover, the sex differences which appeared in the children's responses to other parts of the quiz support the above findings. For example, the girls listed teaching among the three *best-liked* occupations *much more frequently than did the boys*. For every boy who stated that teaching in the grades or rural schools was among the three occupations that he would like most to follow, 44 girls so responded.

These and certain other sex differences in attitude are set forth in Table V (*see* page 110) which presents the ratio of girls to boys in attitude towards four types of educational endeavor. Table V is to be read as follows: For each boy who indicated that he would willingly become a school principal, 5 girls so responded. For every boy who expressed willingness to become a high-school teacher, 18 girls so responded. Table V reveals also that for every boy who expressed the expectation that he would become a teacher in the grades or rural schools, 149 girls so expressed themselves! Further study of Table V shows that each of the four types of educational endeavor is liked better and respected more by girls than by boys. Furthermore, the girls are decidedly more likely to enter these occupations than are the boys.

Dashiell has stated that human activity is by no means completely described when prompt and short-lived reactions only have been identified and described.⁵ Man's activity is organized about slowly generated and long-lasting reactions as well

⁵John Frederick Dashiell, *Fundamentals of Objective Psychology* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1928), p. 275.

Instead of being a complicated jumping jack, man is an organism whose activity, although varying in detail from moment to moment, still shows cores of consistency running through it all. It must not be studied in cross section only, it must be seen in longitudinal sections as well. . . one element contributing to the continuity of a person's conduct from minute to minute and from hour to hour is that of long-time and enduring responses⁴

Among the human organism's enduring responses are some of its attitudes. Some develop slowly, but persist. Students of human behavior have spent a vast amount of time and energy studying such simple and short-lived responses as simple reaction time. Such study has been eminently worth while. It is, nevertheless, also worth while to devote time and energy to the study of long-time and enduring responses which are expressed by certain attitudes.

Possibly the sex differences which are set forth in Table V may explain in part the fact that girls obtain better marks in school work, fail less often, and experience a smaller percentage of elimination from school than do boys. Possibly the foregoing condition will continue to exist until the school succeeds in arousing attitudes in boys as favorable as those now existing in girls.

TABLE I
TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN INCLUDED IN A SERIES OF INVESTIGATIONS
OF CHILDREN'S VOCATIONAL ATTITUDES

<i>Ages</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
8½	866	1,038
9½	1,342	1,405
10½	1,677	1,607
11½	1,640	1,607
12½	1,734	1,633
13½	1,588	1,561
14½	1,416	1,511
15½	1,244	1,392
16½	1,003	1,069
17½	606	570
18½	230	139
Totals	13,346	13,532

TABLE II
FREQUENCY RANK OF PROFESSIONALS AND OTHER TYPES OF WORKERS WHOSE
OCCUPATIONS ARE THOUGHT BY BOYS OF 8½ TO 18¼ YEARS OF AGE
TO BE MOST RESPECTED

Items from Check List	Ages												
	8½	9½	10½	11½	12½	13½	14½	15½	16½	17½	18½		
Doctor (physician, surgeon, or specialist)	1	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Banker	2	2	6	4	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	3
Minister (preacher or priest)	16	14	15	10	7	6	6	4	3	3	2	2	2
Aviator	3	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	6	7	6	6	6
Lawyer	5	4	5	3	4	4	4	6	5	5	5	5	5
Judge or justice of the peace	12	11	7	7	6	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	4
Cowboy	4	6	13	22									
Army officer	7	3	3	5	5	7	8	8	10	9	11		
Soldier	6	3	4	6	8	13	24						
Sheriff or policeman	10	7	10	11	16	15	14	19	20	20	19		
Movie actor or actress	13	13	9	9	11	10	9	12	12	12	12		
Musician	19	16	14	12	13	9	10	9	9	11	9		
Politician or statesman				18	10	8	7	7	7	6	6		
College professor					26	26	20	14	11	11	7		
Scientist or research specialist							26	24	13	12	10		
Dentist	8	8	11	13	14	16	16	10	21	13	14		
Sailor	9	10	12	19	22	26							
Missionary					23	24	27	21	17	13	13		
Navy officer	14	12	8	8	9	12	13	16	15	14	17		
Civil engineer			18	17	18	14	17	11	16	20	18		
Professional baseball player	16	15	16	14	15	19	12	17					
Fireman (answering fire alarms)	13	9	17	20	21	25	23						
Artist (oil paintings, etc.)	19	16	16	17	17	25							
Inventor				15	12	11	15	13	18	15	14		
Capitalist							21	18	8	10	15		
Architect								19	17	16	17		
Editor or publisher							22	15	14	8	18		

TABLE III
RANK IN FREQUENCY OF OCCUPATIONS OR WORKERS WHICH GIRLS OF 8½ TO
18½ YEARS OF AGE THINK ARE THE MOST RESPECTED

[illegible]

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGES OF CHILDREN WHO EXPRESSED BELIEF THAT VARIOUS WORKERS FOLLOW ONE OF THE THREE MOST HIGHLY RESPECTED KINDS OF OCCUPATIONAL ENDEAVOR

C A	(1) Doctor (physician, surgeon, or specialist)		(2) Banker		(3) Minister (preacher or priest)		(4) Aviator	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
8½	13	9	12	13	4	4	10	1
9½	14	13	11	11	4	5	11	2
10½	19	18	12	9	5	4	14	2
11½	20	15	13	10	6	7	18	4
12½	27	20	17	12	9	10	20	4
13½	26	24	17	13	11	13	18	6
14½	34	32	25	18	11	21	21	5
15½	41	36	22	20	14	22	16	4
16½	63	40	33	22	22	29	13	3
17½	53	48	34	29	26	33	10	2
18½	43	36	20	22	25	32	14	7

TABLE V

RATIO OF GIRLS TO BOYS WHO EXPRESSED VARIOUS ATTITUDES TOWARDS FOUR TYPES OF EDUCATIONAL ENDEAVOR

Occupational endeavor	<i>It is an occupation that I would be willing to follow as my life work</i>	<i>It is among the 3 occupations that I should like best to follow</i>	<i>It is the vocation that I shall most likely follow</i>	<i>It is among the 3 occupations that are most highly respected</i>
School principal .	5 to 1	4 to 1	3 to 1	3 to 1
Teacher in high school . . .	18 to 1	15 to 1	11 to 1	6 to 1
Teacher in grades or rural schools .	34 to 1	44 to 1	149 to 1	10 to 1
Kindergarten work .	57 to 1	83 to 1	341 to 1	18 to 1

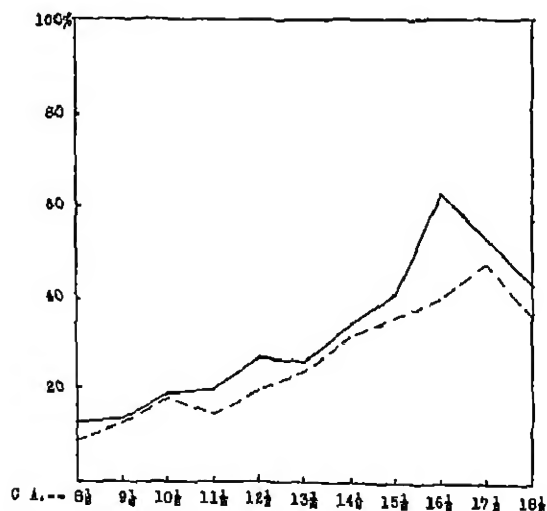


Figure 1 Percentages of children of various age levels who expressed belief that the physician's profession is among the three most highly respected occupations.

Boys —————
Girls - - - - -

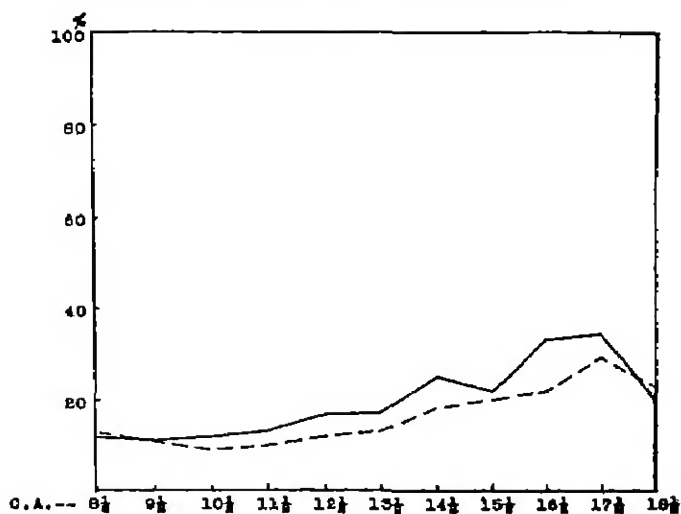


Figure 2. Percentages of children of various age levels who expressed belief that the banker's occupation is among the three that are most highly respected.

Boys —————
Girls - - - - -

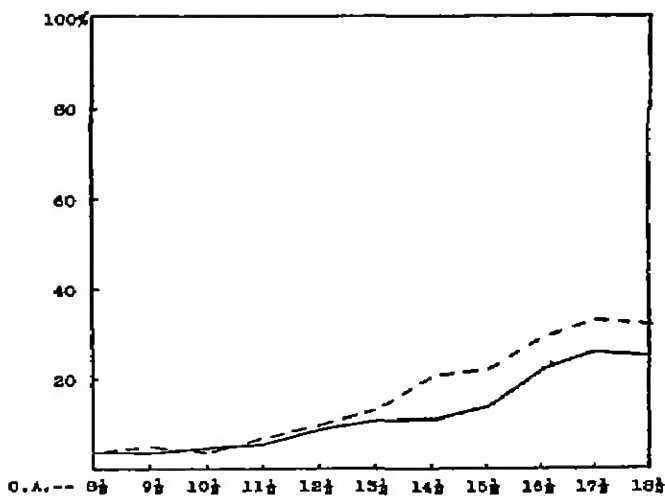


Figure 3 Percentages of children of various age levels who expressed belief that the minister (preacher or priest) is following one of the three most highly respected types of work.

Boys —————
Girls - - - - -

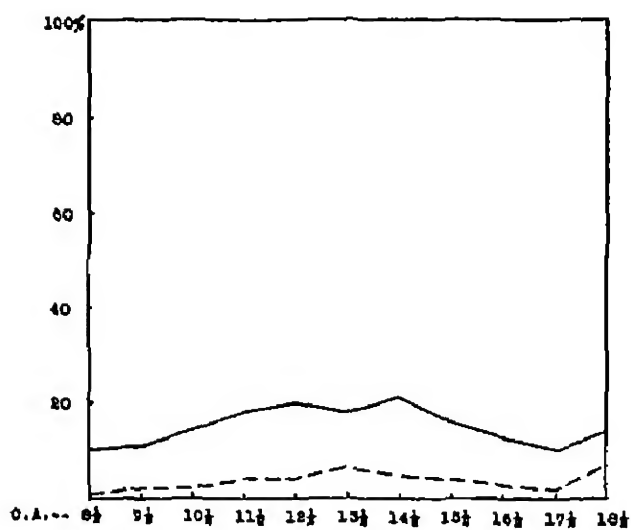


Figure 4. Percentages of children of various age levels who expressed belief that the aviator's occupation is among the three that are most highly respected.

Boys —————

Girls - - - - -

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of the JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed

MUSEUM OF SCIENCE EXHIBIT

The presentation of statistics developed to great new resources of truth-telling and art through the use of three dimensions or four with time and movement, also including the use of coloring, light, transparency, and observer operation, will be attempted in the new Museum of Science in Industry founded by Julius Rosenwald to be opened in the rebuilt Field Museum in Jackson Park, Chicago. Rudolf Modley of the Social Museum of Vienna is to be the curator of the new institution which will attempt the graphic presentation of the economic and sociologic consequences of important inventions as well as other sociological phenomena. This represents an attempt to interpret the results of research to the popular mind in a form which it can grasp.

IMPARTIAL OBSERVER TECHNIQUE

At the request of the Coördinating Committee on Unemployment of the New York City Welfare Council the research bureau of that organization has arranged to employ an impartial observer to prepare an account of the social work problems encountered in the present unemployment situation. This factual and chronological record is to be used as a basis for departure in attempts to meet future problems of the same type. It is an indication of the growing recognition of the necessity of a factual basis for social action and community planning. The Welfare Council

has employed Miss Lillian Brandt, formerly of the staff of the Charity Organization Society, the New York School of Social Work, the Bellevue-Yorkville Health Demonstration, Columbia University, and the Encyclopaedia Britannica to perform this function.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA RESEARCH

The Institute for Research in the Social Sciences at the University of Virginia was organized in 1926.¹ At the outset it was made possible by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation which has been renewed for another five-year period upon the basis of a continually increasing proportion of the cost being borne by the University budget proper. The principal accomplishment of the Institute has been that of an intensely dynamic force developing the social sciences at the University of Virginia, particularly in the research phases but also in the marked extension and improvement of the teaching of these subjects. Practically every member of the social-science faculties has been stimulated or aided in his research effort by the work of the Institute. During the first five years of its operation 21 research projects were embarked upon.

A list of the titles will show the nature of the program. The studies in italics have been completed and published. *A Statistical Study of Virginia; Counties in Transition, A Study of County Public and Private Welfare Administration in Virginia; Public and Private Welfare, Roanoke, Virginia; Rural Depopulation in Certain Tidewater and Piedmont Areas of Virginia, Research in the Social Sciences: Its Fundamental Methods and Objectives; Life Insurance in Virginia, Rural and Urban Living Standards in Virginia; Fort Lewis: A Community in Transition; Bibliography of Virginia History Since 1865; Problems in Contemporary County Government, Labor in the Industrial South; Criminal Justice in Virginia, Workmen's Compensation and Automobile Liability Insurance; Currency, Credit and Crises in Virginia Since 1860; Regionalism in France;*

¹Statement furnished through the courtesy of Wilson Gee, director of the Institute

Distribution of the Tax Burden in Virginia; An Investigation of Fundamental Traits in Social Groups; A Survey of the Virginia Jails and Police and Magistrate Courts; The Cotton Cooperative in the South; State Subsidies in Virginia; and Labor and Labor Conditions in Virginia.

As will be observed, the major emphasis thus far has been upon regional studies. While in its further development the emphasis will continue thus, the scope of research effort will not be limited to regional studies but will include subjects of national and international concern. Recently an association has been entered into with the Century Company of New York City, who are now the publishers and distributing agents of the Institute series.

NEW YORK STATE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH CONFERENCE

A research conference of great significance to the solution of educational problems in the state of New York was held on March 27, 1931, in Chancellor's Hall of the Education Building at Albany, N. Y. The purpose of the conference was to bring together the members of the State Department of Education and the representatives of research interests in education departments in the various universities and teachers' colleges of the State. The morning session was given to presentations by the various members of the State Department of the problems which they had met and on which they felt research was necessary to secure a factual basis for solution. The afternoon session was given to presentations by representatives of the various universities and teachers' colleges who indicated problems which from their point of view needed research investigation.

The conference was opened by greetings from Frank P. Graves, commissioner of education of the State of New York, who introduced the chairman of the conference, Warren W. Coxe, director of research of the State Education Department. Dr. Coxe pointed out that several of the problems of the State Education Department remain unsolved and that the college group are seeking good prob-

lems upon which to exercise their research efforts. He indicated also that the college group was anxious to know the problems facing the State Department. Heretofore, there had been no opportunity for these two groups to meet for discussion. This, therefore, was a unique sort of conference because the groups met together not to pool their knowledge as is ordinarily the case, but to tell each other what they did not know. There followed brief presentations of a great variety of research problems which numbered more than one hundred when the total list was completed.

Research problems in the following fields of the State Department of Education were presented by the following persons at the morning session:

Higher Education Division—Harlan H. Horner, acting assistant commissioner

Secondary Education Division—George M. Wiley, assistant commissioner

Examinations and Inspections Division—Avery W. Skinner, director

Elementary Education Division—J. Cayce Morrison, assistant commissioner

Vocational Education Division—Lewis A. Wilson, assistant commissioner

Finance Division—Alfred D. Simpson, assistant commissioner

Attendance Division—Charles L. Mosher, director

Health and Physical-Education Division—Frederick Rand Rogers, director

School Buildings and Grounds Division—Joseph H. Hixson, director

Teacher Training Division—Herman J. Magee, director

Child Development and Parental Education—Ruth Andrus, director

Visual Instruction Division—Alfred W. Abrams, director

The afternoon session was devoted to a presentation of the problems encountered by representatives of the universities and schools of education in the State:

Secondary and Higher Education—R. H. Jordan, professor of education, Cornell University

Administration and Organization—Harry P. Smith, director of research, Syracuse Public Schools, and professor of education, Syracuse University

Elementary Education—Oscar E. Hertzberg, professor of psychology, State Teachers College, Buffalo

Nonacademic Development—Earl B. South, assistant professor, State College for Teachers, Albany

School-Community Relationships—Frederic M. Thrasher, associate professor of education, New York University

Research Methodology—Paul V. West, professor of education, New York University

At the conclusion of this presentation George D. Strayer, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, commented upon the discussions. He complimented the State commissioner and the director of the department of research upon the fine results of the conference in stimulating discussion and thought in the direction of plans for coöperative research on the problems indicated. It was the consensus of opinion that the conference should be repeated. The conference passed a resolution that a committee of five be appointed by the commissioner of education to cooperate with the Research Division of the State Department and such colleges as may be designated.²

²Some of the problems suggested at this conference will be presented in this department in later issues of the JOURNAL.

BOOK REVIEWS

History of Secondary Education, by I. L. KANDEL. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 577 pages.

Secondary Education in Germany, France, England, and Denmark, by STEPHEN P. CABOT. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1930, 110 pages.

Kandel needs no twenty-one-gun salute to introduce him to the brotherhood of professional pedagogues. One of the leading *prominenti* in the realm of comparative education, the doctor is a full professor in good standing at Teachers College, Columbia University, as well as a hard-working associate of the celebrated International Institute. Every year he puts his editorial imprimatur on the International Yearbook, a volume held in high esteem among comparative educationists. An author in his own right, moreover, the Columbia doctor has frequently and abundantly added to the national supply of learned letters.

In his latest book Dr. Kandel, as always, hews to the scholarly line. Indeed, his book may well be found somewhat too scholarly for the hordes of practical and efficient Pestalozzis who now adorn some of our mightier citadels of teacher training. For such busy masters, however, Dr. Kandel obviously has not written.

The whole historical portrait of secondary education is limned. Beginning with a score of pages on the Greek doings, the Columbia professor uncovers the Romans, the Middle Ages, the original humanism, and the early scientific movement. His real work, however, doesn't begin until page 181, when he dives into the rise and development of national systems of education. Here Dr. Kandel soberly restricts his efforts to France, Germany, England, and our own glorious Republic.

What now are the chief burdens assumed by the doctor? They are, I gather, to show (1) that social metamorphoses have always affected to some degree our conception of a liberal education; (2) that conflicts of purpose, bellowing against pedagogic rigidity and shouts for new content are very old chapters in the history of education, (3) that social aim has always permeated these effervescent conflicts.

All this, and more, Dr. Kandel has presented with zealous and microscopic care. His treatise is shot through with whole broadsides of learned and authoritative documents which, alas, don't tend to make the doctor's heavy pen any less weighty. Yet the conclusions that fall from his postulates are in the main sound. And even when in rare moments they drift into the domain of soothsaying, they are hardly without interest. Can it be, for example, that the schoolmaster's millennium is in the offing and that the American "constant demand for

equality of opportunity" may "in time mean the extension of the period of compulsory education through the whole adolescent period"? If so, then let us have prayers and fasting to stem this rising tide. Can it really be, moreover, "that some form of secondary education for all is coming"? The Columbia *maestro*, I fear, is an optimist. Certainly such cultural deserts as Mississippi and Georgia will be amazed at Dr. Kandel's astute predictions.

But these, after all, are insignificant items in Dr. Kandel's work, which, as I have hinted, is of the first order. Certainly no first-rate professor of secondary education should be unacquainted with its excellent contents.

Mr. Cabot's *étude*, it is worthy to note, was compounded originally for the learned ears of the graduate students of the Harvard School of Education. Yet despite this high reason for being, Mr. Cabot's work is mainly old and puerile stuff. Most of its essence, in fact, is already on hand in the familiar textbooks on the subject. Culturally there's nothing of importance here except perhaps the announcement that at "Wickersdorf, the famous runner, Dr. Otto Pelzer, is the physical director." From the point of view of originality, however, Mr. Cabot's powers are more formidable. He says, for example, that France is "the country that has given birth to Jean Jacques Rousseau." No doubt the patriotic Swiss will be startled by this finding. Aside from such rare cases, however, Mr. Cabot's contribution is mainly rubbish.

ADOLPH E. MEYER

Modern Methods and the Elementary Curriculum (Revised Edition), by CLAUD A. PHILLIPS. New York: The Century Company, 1931, 521 pages.

Since the appearance of the first edition of this volume in 1923, the results of many scientific studies in education that affect the elementary field have been made available. Two characteristics of the revised edition make it distinctly superior to the volume which it displaces, namely, the much more scholarly treatment of the material contained in the first edition, and, in addition thereto, a clear, adequately inclusive treatment of the more significant, scientific studies which have effected changes in the elementary curriculum. The first chapter, which does not have its counterpart in the earlier edition, presents a useful enumeration of curriculum researches and concludes with a restatement of the "fundamental assumptions" of the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

Chapter bibliographies have been greatly improved through the inclusion of more pertinent and significant references appearing both before and after the first edition. However, they consistently lack two important items contained in properly constructed bibliographies, namely, the publisher and date of publication of each reference. Unfortunate typographical errors in the context of the first edition have been cor-

rected. Chapters two, three, and four remain substantially as they were in the first edition. It would seem that the chapter dealing with "How Children Learn" should not have remained identically the same as in the 1923 edition. Likewise the reviewer questions the appropriateness of the discussion of psychological and sociological traits of adolescents in a book dealing with the problems of childhood education. This the author has done to the exclusion of any treatment of the psychological and sociological characteristics of childhood. Again, the reviewer would suggest that we have arrived at a clearer and more succinct concept of the purpose of elementary education than those generally accepted eight years ago.

Aside from the weaknesses indicated in the previous paragraph the reviewer heartily commends the general treatment of the problem of this volume. The remaining chapters approach the various elementary subject fields through (1) a brief historical account of the subject; (2) review of the scientific studies within each field, which is used as a basis for (3) outlining the minimum essentials of each grade for that subject; (4) standards of achievement set up for each subject in each grade; (5) "suggested procedures", (6) suggestions for "measuring results," which, in addition to good ways of measuring, list specific standardized tests that are suitable. The subjects thus treated are reading, spelling, handwriting, language including composition and grammar, arithmetic, music, drawing, health and physical education, and character education. In some instances, as in the last subject mentioned, the treatment has necessarily been very scanty. In his treatment of some subjects, for example reading, the author has entirely rewritten his earlier analysis.

The revised edition will prove to be of value to all students of elementary education, whether they be teachers in the field or students in training institutions, in that it makes available the essential features of many important studies that are already printed but not easily available because they are hidden away in educational journals, yearbooks, committee reports, courses of study, and the like.

F. C. BORCHSON

Physical Education for Elementary Schools, by N. P. NEILSON and WINIFRED VAN HAGEN. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1930, 365 pages.

Physical Education for Elementary Schools is a reprint of the California State Physical Education Manual. It presents one of the best, if not the best, organized elementary-school programs in physical education. The activities are arranged by grades, the presentation is clear and concise, and the activities are especially well chosen from the standpoint of age and capacity needs. In addition to the program of activities, the book is rich in suggestions on classification of children, classification of activities, organization, and methods. It also has a section on play areas, equipment, and supplies. The book is very usable.

JAY B. NASH

How to Supervise, by GEORGE C. KYTE. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930, 468 pages.

In this book Professor Kyte has endeavored to provide a practical and a defensible program of elementary-school supervision. He has succeeded admirably in the attainment of this objective. The book reflects clearly the excellent qualifications of the author for writing in this field.

The first division of the book presents briefly, but adequately for the purposes to be served, the history and philosophy of supervision. Professor Kyte has proposed a philosophy of supervision which is in harmony with an acceptable philosophy of education. He proposes as "the general aim of supervision the maximum development of the teacher into the most professionally efficient person she is capable of becoming at all times." He believes that the teacher is professionally efficient when she is thoroughly competent in self-analysis, self-criticism, and self-improvement.

In the second division Professor Kyte proposes an organization for the efficient supervision of teaching. He indicates the supervisory responsibilities of the various supervisory officers of the school system. In this section, as in the others, he makes liberal use of research studies which have been made in the field of supervision.

Techniques in supervision, including the special problems of supervising new teachers, weak teachers, and superior teachers are considered in the third and fourth sections. The author presents the relative importance and the principal functions to be served by those supervisory techniques which are actually employed in progressive public-school systems. No supervisor could fail to profit by a critical evaluation of his practices in the light of the supervisory program proposed in this book.

ALONZO F. MYERS

Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum, by NEAL BILLINGS. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1929, 289 pages.

This study in the University Research Monographs takes the reader behind the scene of the Lincoln School Social Science Research Group, and exemplifies their basic principles, research procedures, and conclusions. The well-known Rugg Social Science Texts for Junior High Schools embody generalizations selected by such methods.

The investigation selects and formulates eight hundred and eighty-eight "basic generalizations" from writings of "frontier thinkers" in the social sciences, recognized leaders, recognition being determined by consensus of a group of specialists, unlisted. Similarly one hundred and twenty-five "central themes" are selected for recognition and use. There is included a list of "concepts or cue meanings" used in the generalizations, the grasp of which is essential, ranked as to importance.

The aim of the book is service to curriculum makers primarily. It

is a distinct contribution in answering the question, what is important in the social studies?

The generalizations and central themes are valuable in giving in very concise form a view of social problems and conclusions of a selected group of thinkers in the field.

For research students it is as well a fine example of a technique in "as nearly an objective manner as possible."

Research studies rarely interest the general reader, but the list of books of frontier thinkers makes a respectable shelf of the social sciences

CHARLES M. GILL

An Introduction to Vocational Education, by ARTHUR B. MAYs. New York: The Century Company, 1930, 323 pages.

This is a good generalized treatment of various forms of vocational education. It is interesting to note that the author recognizes that vocational education is as broad as the whole field of human occupations for which training can be given or should be given. It is true that most of the discussion is confined to vocational education of less than college grade and in the four fields of industrial, agricultural, home-making, and commercial education. The many other fields of vocational education of less than college grade are recognized by the author, but are treated very lightly. This is also true of his treatment of vocational education of college grade.

It would appear that the inclusion of more statistical information would improve the book, as would also a recourse to specific reference to definite agencies which exemplify the various types of work covered in the book. As the volume now stands, it will serve as an excellent background for the beginner in this field, the experienced worker in the field or the advanced student will most likely desire a more extensive and intensive treatment.

RALPH E. PICKETT

Laboratory Instruction in the Field of Inorganic Chemistry, by VICTOR H. NOLL. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1930, 164 pages.

This is the third of a series of studies related to the teaching of science at the college level published at the University of Minnesota. It represents one of the most careful and most elaborate investigations dealing with the values of individual laboratory work in science courses. Through a preliminary investigation the author raised significant questions concerning the achievement of chemistry students in laboratory activities and, at the same time, validated certain measures of general achievement and of laboratory outcomes.

The major part of the investigation attempts to obtain valid answers to the questions: (1) May a part of the usual laboratory time profitably be given to outside reading? (2) May a part of the usual laboratory hours profitably be given to oral quiz and recitation? (3) Do five hours

of laboratory work yield achievement superior to that gained in three hours? (4) To what extent does interest in the subject of chemistry lead to greater achievement? (5) Do differences in sex of students indicate differences in achievement? (6) Does previous study of chemistry in high school lead to greater achievement in college chemistry?

The techniques used in obtaining data for these difficult problems and the careful statistical treatment of the data merit for the investigation a high rank among the investigations in science teaching. The results raise many pertinent questions concerning our present allotment of time to laboratory instruction in college science courses.

CHARLES J. PIEPER

Human History, by G. ELLIOT SMITH. New York: W. W. Norton, 1929, 463 pages.

According to the preface, *Human History* was written in a biological laboratory with the aim of merging the benefits of the two disciplines, science and the humanities. "Its purpose is to search for the deep motives that shaped man's career, and to call attention to the vital factors of human thought and behavior which have been ignored by most writers." Evidence is marshalled to prove the thesis, "Innate morality is a vital and essential quality."

"Natural man did, and still does, exist—totally devoid of any of the customs, beliefs, arts and crafts, social and political organization of civilization—and that originally such primitive men were decent, generous, and peaceful."

With this as foundation, there is developed the story of the acquisition of culture, the tyranny of the state system (Kingship), and the successful, rational Ionian revolt.

One "deep motive" chiefly stressed is the "Life Quest" (the preservation of life). The beliefs about "givers of life" as evidenced in symbolism of amulets, charms, standards, architectural decoration, are carefully traced.

Other positions taken that challenge the thought of the reader are "acceptance of history as development—continuity—progress" in which advance and relapse have their acknowledged places, the probability that "the cradle of the human family lies somewhere between the Himalayas and the Heart of Africa", the wanderings and segregation of races including the Nordic, Egypt, the origin of civilization, and its diffusion therefrom over the world, even to the Americas, a primitive golden age relapsing into superstition in Egypt and related state systems and reborn in the rationalism of Ionia.

As a human history, it is but a volume one closing with the influence of Greece.

CHARLES M. GILL

Education as a Life Work, by RIVERDA HARDING JORDAN
New York: The Century Company, 1930, 303 pages.

This volume has been prepared "for use in teacher-training institu-

tions and in classes for vocational guidance" It is intended to serve the double purpose of affording a sort of job analysis or job specification "relative to the duties and compensations of all grades of educators" (Part I) and "giving a view of the purposes of education" (Part II). The tone of the book is optimistic and inspirational. Here and there a statement may be challenged by those who hold other opinions or question opinions expressed. However, it is but human to desire to accept at full value some flattering assertions relative to our profession and its personnel.

Part I comprises a study of the opportunities in educational work. Titles of chapters are promising. This reviewer, however, was disappointed in the content, sources of information, and in several instances, in the author's approach to the guidance problem. So far as content is concerned sins of omission rather than sins of commission are noted although the volume could hardly be rated *accurately informative*. Why so much space to the well known and everywhere discussed educational jobs to the almost total neglect of the little known but rapidly increasing opportunities in art, physical training, school libraries, music, and personnel service of all types including deans and advisers, vocational counselors, attendance officers, and visiting teachers? Why use so many sources of information published prior to 1920 when newer material on the same subject is available? Why a bibliography without dates?

The author does not definitely state his viewpoint on "guidance" but one finds expressions which indicate that he is thinking of guidance in terms of *some one else's* activity rather than in terms of activity on the part of the person choosing a vocation.

Content of Part II contributes nothing new to understanding of "purposes of education." The entire volume looks backward rather than forward in selection of material, in point of view, in apportionment of space to the various educational positions, in sources of information, and in reference material. It hardly seems probable that it will serve the double purpose for which it was written.

ANNA Y. REED

The Public and its Government, by FELIX FRANKFURTER.
New Haven: Yale University Press, 1930, 170 pages.

The choice of title for the four lectures delivered by Professor Frankfurter at Yale in May 1930 upon the William E. Dodge Foundation is scarcely a happy one. In reality, nothing so fundamental as might be inferred from it is undertaken. Rather, some aspects of the political problem as affected by recent technological development are discussed in a generally interesting, sometimes brilliant, but, it must be confessed, somewhat spasmodic fashion.

The real meat of Professor Frankfurter's discussion is to be found in the lectures entitled "Does Law Obstruct Government," and "Public Services and the Public." Especially valuable is his criticism of the

present application of the 14th amendment by the Supreme Court, with its insistence that such juristic products as the *Lochner* case were the products of the "vague terror" produced by the nasty word "socialism," and the further fact that "the last decade again became a period dominated by fears, and these fears again registered as Supreme Court decisions" Equally significant is the discussion of the breakdown of contemporary public-utility regulation in Lecture III, with its lucid analysis of the impracticability and uncertainty of reproduction cost as a basis of valuation of rate making.

The final lecture, styled "Administration and Democracy" is disappointing. Nowhere does Professor Frankfurter define the basic concept of democracy, and the reader is consequently left in much doubt concerning what the author believes to be the problem of popular government under modern social and economic conditions. We are told that "If the continuance of our civilization is to be predicated upon democracy—obviously knowledge and the capacity for judgment must permeate the whole community." In almost the same breath we hear of "The intricate range of problems thrown up by our industrial civilization; the vast body of technical knowledge, more and more beyond the comprehension even of the cultivated, which is required for an analysis of the issues underlying these problems and an exploration of possible remedies." This incompatibility remains unresolved, nor do we learn how popular control and efficient government may be attained.

Especially delightful is the treatment of the "late head of the New York police" who is ranked with those for whom "history begins with their own experience."

CHARLES C THACH

The New Citizenship, by SEBA ELDRIDGE. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1929, 357 pages.

Professor Eldridge has written a stimulating, but, to this reviewer, an unconvincing book. Confronted with the destructive effect of anti-intellectual psychology on orthodox democratic political theory, Professor Eldridge has been unwilling to admit to himself that the task of resurrecting the hopelessly deceased is beyond human power; that, in short, the idea of the "will of the people" as a positive, rather than merely a limiting concept, has to depart, bag and baggage, from political and social thinking.

This is not to say that the attempt to create a "new" citizenship which shall be a positive force in political affairs is not valorously made. The author makes no effort to minimize the fact that at present "the masses of citizens" are "isolated, indifferent, ineffective, in so far as intelligent, active participation in civic interests is concerned." Indeed, the first three chapters of the work constitute as clear seeing an analysis as any of which the reviewer is aware, concerning the failure of popular government in the orthodox sense; that is, as government whose

policies are initiated by the intelligent, informed opinion of the community.

But one may be pardoned for being skeptical of the suggested cure. One need only to remember the Republic to recall that the besetting sin of even the small Athenian democracy, composed of a superior minority, was nothing other than ignorance. And not even Plato in his noble dream dared to hope to cure the situation by trying to create a truly "politically wise" citizen body. After all, the number even of skilled checker players in a community is small! Surely the mere reading of the catalogue of the requirements of a "new citizen," a "competent" citizen would lead us to pessimistic conclusions as to the possibility of establishing that ideal, that Utopian Greek democracy (which never was, in fact, on land or sea), in the United States of America.

The problem of popular government, in short, has never been, can never be that of government *by* the people. Rather it is that, as Plato saw, of obtaining rulers who are, indeed, wise and efficient and have a special care for the State, and of ensuring that they rule, not in the interests of themselves and their group, but of the community. That is to say, it is a problem of efficient government and of responsibility, not of reviving a nonexistent will of the people.

CHARLES C. TILACH

The Government and Railroad Transportation, by ALBERT RUSSELL ELLINGWOOD and WHITNEY COOMBS. New York: Ginn and Company, 1930, 642 pages.

This is not an exposition of the law of commerce, but a casebook on the regulation of railroads containing (1) some extracts from the interstate commerce acts, (2) edited decisions by the Interstate Commerce Commission and by the United States Supreme Court, (3) parts of reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission, (4) selections from reports of Congressional committees, (5) some material from treatises and periodical literature, and (6) lists of questions for each case or section. The authors have exercised good judgment in selecting and editing the materials. The general plan of the book is comprehensive and logical, but the arrangement of the materials is confusing. The mechanics of the book are less orthodox than its substance. Reference is made at the beginning of each section to pertinent statutory provisions, making it practically necessary to have the commerce acts at hand when using the book. It is suggested that if economy of space did not permit the inclusion of both the relevant statutory sections and the lists of questions, then it would have been better to eliminate the questions. A list of all the materials contained in the volume would have been useful, only the cases are listed. Annotations and a more liberal use of editorial notes would have improved materially this otherwise excellent collection of materials relating to the public regulation of railroads.

RINEHART J. SWENSON

American City Government and Administration, by AUSTIN F. MACDONALD. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1929, 762 pages.

Professor MacDonald has, it seems to the reviewer, written an excellent text for courses in municipal government. While he has made no striking departures from the conventional approach of the texts already established in the field, the author has enriched his discussion with appropriate and enlivening illustrative material, a valuable expository aid to both instructor and student. In extent, in detail, and in clarity the text is easily the peer of the standard works in city government.

In the chapter entitled "The Theory of City Government," the author makes his most original and, in the judgment of the reviewer, his most valuable contribution. "City government in the future," he writes, "must be based on a new political theory." The keynote of the new theory, and here every serious student of the problem will agree, "may be summed up in three words—concentration, simplicity, confidence." These are familiar words in the world of municipal reform, for concentration of authority, simplification of governmental structure, and the encouragement of responsible government have been the guiding formulae for urban reorganization for two decades. The practical results, notably in Cincinnati during recent years, have been the subject of acclaim. Yet Professor MacDonald is the first, to the reviewer's knowledge, to put within the covers of a text a full statement of the theory upon which these reforms have proceeded. Previous writers have been contented with stating, and often endorsing, the structural changes leading to centralized and simplified forms, while avoiding any discussion of the theory upon which any such change must be based. Here, however, is a straightforward, incisive disposal of that American anachronism, the "separation-of-powers, checks-and-balance system," and the frank substitution of a system intended to increase responsibility, not scatter and dissipate it. In this respect, Professor MacDonald has drawn a lesson which is valuable to all students of American government, local, State, and national.

The author properly devotes a large portion of his text to administrative problems, thus avoiding the stale formalism of an encyclopaedic discussion of structure. Under administrative problems, one of the most interesting and lucid discussions is on public utilities.

WALLACE S. SAYRE

The Story of Government, by SIR CHARLES PETRIE. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1929, 329 pages.

Grave shortcomings are inherent in any attempt to compress "the story of government" into some three hundred pages of type. However meaty the sentences, however informed the writer, truth is often sacrificed to polish the succinct phrase, and history is often perverted by the flat assertion of sweeping generalization. But even these considera-

tions do not excuse the defects evident in Sir Charles Petrie's analysis of the development of our governmental forms. His essay is marred by a dogmatic tone, by arbitrary dismissal of "dissenting" opinions, and by an enthusiasm for creating patterns of evolution where only accident and good fortune presided.

The author proceeds easily and swiftly from "early forms" of government through the "City State," the Roman Empire, the Middle Ages, and benevolent despotism; after the storming of the Bastille, he goes more slowly in his analysis of democracy versus dictatorship, which is the central theme of his work. A striking lacuna is his failure to notice the democratic experience of Switzerland and Scandinavia.

As a prehistorian, Petrie is an inadequate guide. His flat assertion that the family is the origin of all things governmental is sharply challenged by the highly competent anthropologists, Lowie and MacIver, while his dictum on patriarchal forms ignores the brilliant work of his own countryman, Robert Briffault. The discussion of Greek and Roman experience is sketchy but fairly accurate.

When the author reaches modern experience his penchant for the bold and startling phrase, very often misleading, is revealed in full power. Democracy in its conventional forms may be proving "incapable of coping with the problems of this post-war age," but the writer neglects all serious attempts to discover why. His selection of dictatorship as an inevitable alternative seems to this reviewer to be at least superficial. It is perhaps more accurate to say that the author's conservative bent of mind leads him to a familiar but over-easy generalization.

The Story of Government has this value: it demonstrates, though indirectly, the principle that forms of government have a very real relation to the flux of events, and that the temporary decline of our modern experiment in democracy is not to be interpreted as anything more than the painful adjustment of old forms to new facts. Of course, to be blind to necessary readjustment might easily precipitate a long and unhappy wandering in the realms of dictatorship of which the author writes: "All human government rests in the last resort upon force, but the dictatorship more so than the most."

WALLACE S. SAYRE

A Changing Psychology in Social Case Work, by VIRGINIA P. ROBINSON. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1930, 204 pages.

Those who have followed the development of social case work have become increasingly aware of the influence of psychology and psychiatry on methods and procedures in this field. Miss Robinson traces these influences from their earliest beginnings and points out the contributions each science has made. As early as 1901, Mary Richmond designed a chart to show the forces that surrounded the family, but made no reference to the forces at work within the home. Previous to the present time, the main emphasis in case work had been upon

relief. The National Conference of Social Work in 1881 had six standing committees—five of these considered institutions giving relief, and the sixth confining its interest to immigration. Thirty years later the conference appointed nine standing committees. Of these four held counsel on relief and the others focused their attention on the improvement of living conditions. In a paper read by Mary Richmond before the National Conference of 1917, new aims were presented. These aims emphasized the need of skill in discovering the social relationships which shape personalities, they stressed the importance of the worker's ability to get to the core of difficulties in personal relationships, and they recognized the necessity of developing the power to utilize the direct action of mind upon mind in attempting to make adjustments. Miss Robinson asks a pertinent question. "Is the norm of personality to which we seek to adjust individuals to be sought in some criteria of performance and relationship, or in a balance of functioning within the individual?"

Thus it would seem we have gone far past the old idea of relief and the stereotyped classification of outside forces and are now trying to find a better, more scientific measure of human relationships.

The author sets forth five goals for case work:

Restoration of health, reestablishment of kinship ties, removal of educational handicaps, improvement of economic conditions, and overcoming of delinquent tendencies.

To accomplish this, Miss Robinson suggests that the social worker "must be able to analyze the forces active in the individual at the time when she enters into relationship with him; she must be conscious and intelligent concerning the way these forces interact with her attitudes and with each other in the progress of these relationships; and she must have some definition of the therapeutic limitations and possibilities of the relationship."

These criteria demand workers who are well trained in the new psychology and skillful in the use of treatment techniques.

A Changing Psychology in Social Case Work follows the trends of the various schools of psychology, and emphasizes the strength and weakness of each. Some may not agree with Miss Robinson's point of view, but few can fail to appreciate the integrity of her presentation. Laymen as well as students of the social sciences should be interested in this discussion of the changing functions of social case work.

RHEA KAY BOARDMAN

The Family, by EDWARD B. REUTER and JANE R. RUNNER.
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1931, 615
pages

In reading book reviews it often seems to me that it is the proper books that get and deserve the long reviews. If this be the case, a very short one will suffice for this excellent book of readings on "Source Materials for the Study of Family and Personality."

No book is more difficult to accomplish than a book of readings.

In general they are poorly coordinated. They so "hop, skip, and jump" over the field under consideration as to leave the reader in a state of more complete befuddlement than when he started. In the present attempt Reuter and Runner have very nearly accomplished the impossible. The book is eminently readable. The readings are well chosen; they bear upon the subject under discussion, they "hitch", and they are adequate. It is surprising how well the authors have covered the general field in the eighteen chapter divisions they have used.

Two chapters deserve special mention. The first is Chapter VIII, "Some Numerical Relations," in which the editors bring together a large amount of very pertinent statistical data. This subject has not been better done in any similar space. The second is Chapter X, "Sex and Morality." There is no side-stepping of issues in this chapter. Still, it is as clean and wholesome as sex should be.

C. G. DITTMER

Animal Aggregations: A Study in General Sociology, by
W. C. ALLEE. Chicago: The University of Chicago
Press, 1931, 307 pages.

Do not imagine that this is a book dealing with the social habits of bees, ants, and apes. Our author is more ambitious and treats of the "multiple relations" or subsocial life of living molecules in "micro-habitats." His is the sociology of pre-bisexual and nonfamily organic life. He deals with the problems of amoebic population pressure, the optimum population for hookworms, population equilibrium among flour beetles, and the birth rates, death rates, survival rates, and vitality indices of everything up to and including oysters.

"Communal life is not an accidental fact in the animal kingdom; it does not arise here and there fortuitously and, as it were, capriciously; it is not, as is so often supposed, the privilege of certain isolated species in the zoological scale, such as beavers, bees, and ants, but, on the contrary—a normal, constant universal fact. From the lowest to the highest forms in the series, all animals are at some time in their lives immersed in some society, the social medium is the condition necessary to the conservation and renewal of life."

The final evidence, so far as this nonscientific reviewer can discover, is that while overpopulation in the lower organic world may be a fact with certain undesirable effects, congregation up to the optimum is necessary for the best results, and that, below the optimum, microscopic and bug life is handicapped as in the case of man.

The writer sees a general law running through all nature, it is the law of population. The book has a sociological bearing, but to call it a study in general sociology would seem to the sociologist very far-fetched, indeed.

C. G. DITTMER

A Systematic Source Book in Rural Sociology, by P. A.
SOROKIN, C. C. ZIMMERMAN, and C. J. GALPIN. Min-

neapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930, 645 pages.

Sociology has lagged as a science because those interested in this field of study have been concerned with its philosophical implications and with the conflict of other social scientists over the nature of the sociological science and its place in college curricula. Recently sociologists have turned their attention to the strict and proper business of developing a science that would deserve the recognition and respect of scientists in all fields of endeavor. With this change of attitude the science has grown and today there is need for apology.

The department of sociology at the University of Minnesota, under the leadership of Professor Chapin, one of the editors of *THE JOURNAL*, stands in the front of the movement to develop a scientific sociology, and a recent book makes a unique contribution in this direction. A statement from the preface indicates the purpose of the book:

"A world view of the sociology of rural life is important for the development of the science. In order to balance the vogue of agricultural economics as an educational discipline and a guide to public action in America, major emphasis is now required upon a sound rural sociology. There is need that the content of rural sociology, whether presented in texts or lying in the popular mind, should contain facts of an indubitably sociological character. There is need in the textual organization of the facts of rural sociology for a resolutely scientific methodology. In the training of American rural sociologists there is need for a broad acquaintance with the rural sociological thought and theory of Europe and Asia. And, finally, in this era of American teaching, research, and extension of rural sociological facts and theory, and in this period of experimental agrarian legislation, a systematic source book world-wide in scope is timely."

The book is attractively printed, handsomely bound, and demands a place in the library of every educator and student interested in sociology.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

Farm Children, by BIRD T. BALDWIN, EVA ABIGAIL FILLMORE, and LORA HADLEY. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930, 337 pages.

Guiding Rural Boys and Girls, by O. LATHAM HATCHER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1930, 326 pages.

Children at the Crossroads, by AGNES E. BENEDICT. New York: The Commonwealth Fund Division of Publications, 1930, 238 pages.

Farm Children is based upon rural child life in Iowa. The study was made possible through the financial assistance of the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial. The field work covered a period of four

years. Three outstanding objectives were set forth first, to determine the characteristics of rural children as related to their opportunities; second, to establish accurate methods of gathering data in rural communities, and third, to discover problems, which if investigated should lead to a better understanding of rural child life. The community and home background, the social and economic factors of farm life, and the administration and organization of rural schools received careful consideration. The section dealing with the physical and mental development of the farm child is made interesting and illuminating by the use of tables. This volume should be of interest to teachers and parents as well as to all students of health, sociology, and psychology.

That guidance is necessary in the schools has long been recognized, but few rural sections have introduced such a program. *Guiding Rural Boys and Girls* points out the fact that many rural children need guidance even more than children in urban communities because advantages, such as libraries, museums, art galleries, orchestras, and theaters are not available. Rural communities do not have a great diversification of occupations and industries, so it is important that some provision should be made to supplement these lacks. All educators who are interested in the study of guidance and in the factors which should be considered in the organization of a guidance program should find this treatise helpful.

In 1922 the National Committee on Visiting Teachers was created by the Commonwealth Fund to carry on a program of thirty demonstrations of visiting teacher work. Of these, three were conducted in rural communities. *Children at the Crossroads* describes the work of the visiting teachers in these rural sections through the medium of individual case stories. The children in the case stories are typical of any rural district. The analysis of the problem and the treatment and response gained should be stimulating and encouraging to those engaged in rural education and to others who are familiar with country life. A mental-hygiene program of this type is based on social-case work methods and is one approach to the solution of behavior and personality difficulties of children in rural as well as urban areas. Teachers who learn to know the children of these stories will doubtless gain a better understanding of some of the causes which underlie the unadjustment of school children in their own classrooms.

As a group, these three publications serve as a challenge to the county educational and welfare boards to develop a practical and constructive program of individual and community child guidance for the rural child.

RHEA KAY BOARDMAN

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The Second Quinquennial Conference of the World Narcotic Defense Association—This conference was held at Geneva, Switzerland, beginning May 30, 1931, concurrently with the meetings of the official League of Nations Conference on the Limitation of Manufacture of Dangerous Drugs. Captain Richmond P. Hobson, the President of the Association and Dr. E. George Payne of New York University attended as representatives from the United States.

The principal objectives of the Quinquennial Conference were—

First To perfect a plan of international cooperation in mankind's defense against the menace of narcotic drugs. This was fully accomplished by the formation of energetic national organizations in the most important countries which will be affiliated with the parent organization in New York, through its Geneva office.

Second To help the official international conference in its struggle for limitation of manufacture and control of the traffic in dangerous narcotic drugs. This was accomplished through publicity to create militant public opinion and to acquaint the public with the serious problems involved and the necessity for adequate national and international action, and also by submitting to the official League conference a declaration of principles considered necessary for any adequate international covenant. Captain Hobson was invited to address the League conference on this subject, and he and the organizations he represents were publicly complimented by the President of the official Conference for their activities and work in this needed world wide fight. Certain plans that were considered inadequate, unfair and monopolistic were already under serious consideration by the League Conference; but in the face of strong opposition, these plans were abandoned and the essential principles laid down by the World Narcotic Defense Association were embodied in the final International Covenant almost in their entirety. The most important of these features are:

a. The development of an accurate method to determine the world's legitimate needs for all narcotic drugs.

b. The granting of extensive powers to a Permanent Central Board, international in character, along the lines of the development of a complete system of investigation and supervision for the commerce in and the manufacture of all the drugs involved.

c. The inclusion of all derivatives, salts, etc., of opium and the coca leaf in the limitation and the elimination of heroin from ordinary international commerce. Previously certain dangerous drugs had not been included in any limitation covenant.

d The number of exempt preparations containing the drugs in harmless quantities was reduced.

e The manufacture of new habit forming products derived from opium or from the coca leaf was forbidden except under adequate government responsibility and supervision. The manufacture of synthetic products was also made subject to the limitations of the covenant

f All nations were pledged to enact adequate narcotic drug laws and to provide adequate enforcement authorities.

All this constitutes a real victory in the fight against the illicit use of narcotic drugs and is a long step in advance over any previous covenant, but it does not mean that the fight can in any way be abandoned or lessened, this crime against the well-being of mankind must be eradicated. In the past, nations have more or less loosely pledged themselves to limit manufacture but few of them have done so

Third: To bring the thought of leaders of other countries into harmony with the ideas on narcotic education of the American members of the Association. Previously there had been opposition in foreign countries to education methods, particularly as applied to the young. But Dr Payne presented the matter so clearly and forcibly that the final decision at the Quinquennial Conference was unanimous in the adoption of his ideas and plans on universal narcotic education.

RESOLUTIONS

The American educational program was expressed in the following resolutions

First. The problem of drug addiction is essentially an educational problem. The effective control of manufacture, distribution, and consumption of narcotic drugs of every kind depends fundamentally upon the general understanding and attitude of the public which includes public officials, practitioners of medicine, and the public in general. The establishment and the development of an appropriate understanding and the creation of a right attitude among all these groups are fundamentally a matter of education.

Second. In consequence, the organization of education ought to be considered as the indirect means of the limitation of manufacture and commerce in narcotic drugs in order to eliminate their improper use

Third: The problem of narcotic drug addiction in its relation to the secondary schools is one in which the masses are made to understand the nature and effects of narcotic drugs, in part to protect these masses against improper uses, and in part that they may understand the legitimate place that narcotic drugs ought to occupy in national and international commerce

Fourth. (a) A problem of the universities in which it is designed to instruct these who are leaders in the various professions, not only against drug usage but also to use this influence in a manner appropriate to national and international control

(b) A problem of the normal schools and teachers colleges in the

establishment of instruction which has for its purpose to give the necessary preparation for those who have the responsibility of educational programs and methods.

(c) A problem of the medical schools which have the task of developing the proper ethics of medical practice relating to narcotic drugs.

Fifth. But it is important to emphasize that the problem of anti-narcotic education varies in each country with the culture, the characteristics, and the unique social life of each peoples. The solution of the problem, therefore, ought to rest upon a scientific study of the conditions governing education and the constitution of the program to be adopted ought to be in conformity with the facts discovered

Sixth. It would be desirable, and this would be one of the results which would give to this conference its significance, that important subventions should be provided for researches which would determine the precise nature, the extent, and the importance of the problems of education in the fight against narcotic drugs

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

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EDITORIAL

Perhaps the most thought-provoking question about individualism has been: How far can the individual proceed without his group? A recent book,¹ the production of which was inevitable in our age, would lead us to believe that the individual can dispense with his group entirely. "So social case work moves from a sociological into a psychological phase of development."² The process of case work as postulated is defined by the author as "the active search for a relationship in which to solve a problem"³ and she goes on to describe the treatment relationship between social worker and client as essentially similar to the relationship between the psychoanalyst and his patient. Reference is made to Mary Richmond's *Social Diagnosis* as supplanted by "the relationship between worker and client, the one determined by an undefined but active norm varying with the worker's standards and background, the other indeterminate, dynamic, often subversive of social norms."⁴ "I believe that already we see increasing acceptance of case work as individual therapy rather than social welfare, in such agencies as child guidance clinics, but even

¹Virginia P. Robinson, *A Changing Psychology in Social Case Work* (Chapel Hill, N. C.: The University of North Carolina Press, 1930)

²*Ibid.*, p. 183

³*Ibid.*, p. 161

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 113.

here the pressure of parent, school, and community to make the child 'good,' 'conforming' throws a constantly interfering factor into the relationship with the child through which the clinic is trying to release the child to find the courage of his own way of meeting his problems."⁶ "Today the worker is having to resign her reliance upon social norms, moral standards, and sound treatment plans, in favor of limited treatment ends and the stimulation of growth processes within the individual which may carry him she knows not where."⁷ The quotations serve to bring the viewpoint into focus.

Such a viewpoint assumes that behavior does not need to be socially conceived. It is interesting that this view should be presented directly after the scientific investigations of Hartshorne and May, as a result of which we have been told that we cannot expect adequate social behavior without the support of group code and morale. The very conflicts with which the social worker has to deal are rooted in social relationships and the difficulties of choice offered us in urban society where the group does not function wholeheartedly to assist the individual in determining what is acceptable social behavior and what is not. If the individual is to decide these matters wholly by himself, the social worker is at once obsolete for the materials with which she deals—the client's difficulties of adjusting attitudes towards a husband, a child, a superior sister, any social convention—simply do not exist. For social worker and client to retreat from the world in an intimate relationship which takes no thought of social norms is a highly dangerous proceeding. Neither can remain unaffected by the relationship. At the arbitrary termination of the intimacy, each must return to a social world in which there are group codes and social norms, however fragile; the issues from which they escaped are still facing them. Behavior never has been, and never will be, individually determined. The business of life is a

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 185
⁷*Ibid.*, p. 188

business of many relationships, defined by society, and the individual finds his freedom in willing acceptance of relationships under the terms of a social code. To throw the code away in order to effect individual adjustment is comparable to that futile gymnastic activity known as "running in place."

INTERVIEWING THE PROBLEM BOY¹

ROBERT L. WHITLEY

II

In the first article dealing with the boy's story, I pointed out the method that has been used in approaching boys to secure their stories, a few of the interpretations that may be given such material, and presented a portion of one boy's story to indicate the type of background material that may be secured. Other important classifications and interpretations of his story are presented here.

2 ATTITUDES AND INTERESTS

A boy may state certain reactions which he feels intensely without being questioned on them, especially if the interviewer has built up rapport with him. He may also express definite interests and wishes. If the interviewer wishes to understand his behavior in a specific situation, he may question the boy about this situation. It is especially important to note the boy's attitude towards the specific *situation*, as his problem behavior may often be explained in terms of the situation. In such cases, there generally is some element in the situation to which the boy has difficulty in adjusting himself, and he will, when questioned, indicate what this disturbing element is. Or there may be some element which has influenced him to behave in a definite way, even though the problem of adjusting himself to it does not face him. The following material reveals attitudes and wishes of Charles which are definitely formulated in his mind, and a few attitudes that he has expressed at various times under varying conditions.

All three boys (in the interview) seem to think they could do better work if there was not a Negro influence in the institution. They say that they do not like the Negroes or to associate with them but that they have to. They declare that

¹This article is the conclusion of the one which appeared in the October issue of the JOURNAL.

they are not able to eat as they would like to, and Charles says that he goes out in the yard in order to be away from them. They also told that Negroes do many personal things to their bodies when they are in the toilets. They have seen many such instances during school hours. They do not like the colored boys and say that they tell the little kids many bad things to do.

It seems as if there are other boys that influence them. Charles told of one trick that he was taught by an older boy. He chewed up some spinach into small pieces and then spit it on the floor. He did the same to some bread, and put it over the piece of spinach. He would then tell the teacher that he was sick, that he had vomited, and that he wanted to go home. Another method was to stuff food in his mouth, and then just as the teacher looked at him he would spit it out, and this, too, would give the appearance that he was sick, and that he needed to go home.

No one of the three boys likes this institution. They all say that they have learned more elsewhere, and that they have not learned anything new since coming to the school. . . . The boys would like to change to some other school. They called this place a "dump," and said that they would rather go somewhere else where they could learn something.

Charles wants to be a fighter when he grows up . . . Today, when he was in the presence of three teachers, he told them that he was saving up his money. One of them asked him why he was saving money.

"I'm going to buy a sandbag."

"Why?"

"Punch it. Some day I am going to be a prize fighter. I'll be a champeen, and you'll read about me in the papers."

The following material from Charles's story was secured from seven to nine months after he was first interviewed. Charles came in this morning while I was interviewing another boy. He said that he was going to run out of school. He said that his teacher hit him on the head. He said that he came to school on time. When he went to the teacher's room (after school had assembled) the teacher told him that he was late. He went to the teacher who had checked attendance to get a pass, but could not find him. When he came back, his room teacher started an argument with him, and hit him. Charles said, "Why don't he fight like a man, if he do, I make pie out of him." He hit me on the head. He rapped me seven times with his fist. He hit me on the sly. I am going to get my big brother. If there is anything that makes me mad, it is hitting me on the head. I'll get my father, too. He doesn't hit me on the head. When my brothers hit me,

they take me across their knee and hit me with a stick. I fell when I was a kid and hurt my head."

During the interview he called attention to the fact that he resents Negro guards in the school. He does not like the boys to be monitors and to boss him around. "What are they going to do, make slaves out of us? I don't like that, they hit us on the neck, that's no good. I don't like a school where they let Negroes make slaves out of us."

Charles said today that he wants to get his working papers. When asked why, he said that he wants to help his father. He says that his father cannot support him, and that he is going to put him in a home, unless he can get a job. He says that he would like to be out of school, get a job, and help his father make a living. Another day, he came in and told me that he had an argument with his teacher. His teacher told him to get out and not come back. He said that he came back today, but that if his teacher didn't want him, he was going to leave school and not come back any more. He was going to get a job and start working. Another day, he said to me, "Why should I stay in this school, I am going to be put away, anyhow." Still later, he came and told the interviewer that the children were going to be put away. Their father had come home drunk the night before, had cursed at them, telling them that he was going to put them away.

Charles said that the reason that he came to this school was that he "had a fight with the teacher. I forgot, myself, when it was. I don't know (why he fought with the teacher). School is pretty fair. (When asked if he likes his teachers now, he nodded.) They all good"² He indicates that he likes them all right now.

He says that he is not in the Boys' Club now. They broke up for the season. "They broke up last Wednesday. The season is over."

He said today (ten months after he first told about his gang, the Thirteen Thieves) that he used to have a gang. The name of it was the Thirteen Thieves. It broke up. The boys moved away from the block. He doesn't belong to any gang now.

He says that he is going to be put in a home. His sister arranged with an agency for him to be put away. A lady came over to see his father and told him that she would put the children away. His older brothers think the children ought to be put away, because it will be best for them. One of his brothers is not working now, because he can't get work.

²His anger is of short duration. He may be angry enough to want to inflict physical pain on a teacher one day, and be very friendly with the same teacher the next day. Generally his intense reactions against teachers come when he has been disciplined. If a teacher tries to coerce him to do anything he flares into a rage and generally says, "All right, I'll run home." Often, a few moments later, he will be friendly with that teacher.

The other is in high school. Charles will be at his sister's tomorrow, and can't come over to my house for a pair of boxing gloves. The next day, he will be at his aunt's house in another city.

The gloves were to be given the boy if he caused no trouble in the school. He had a fight with a teacher, however, after he had promised to "be good." He didn't remember why he fought with the teacher. He said that he took his beating like a man, and that he hadn't run out of school. I told him that he hadn't kept his promise to keep out of trouble, and he replied, "All right, if you don't want to give me the gloves, my father will."

His father is out of work. He cannot get a job. He says that his father may go to work soon on the pushcart. His father has to borrow money to care for the family.

Charles, his twin brother, and a friend came to my home today to get the gloves that I had promised him. Both boys told me that they are going to be put away after the first of the year, with their little sisters, younger than they. "It's a lady that's got a lot of money," they said. This lady doesn't have any children with her at present. They said that a lady had come to the home from the relief organization and had told the father and the sister that they would be taken after the first of the year. They are positive that they are going. The boys promise to write me, and want me to come to see them. They say they intend to box with each other in this home. They will remain there until they are sixteen, when they will go to work.⁴

Charles says that when he becomes sixteen, he is going to get a job and pay me back all the money I have given him. (Small change, now and then, for a movie, a lunch, or for medicine.) Charles insists that he is going to cause no more trouble when he goes to this home.

Charles often calls the attention of his friends in the presence of the interviewer to the fact that he has been in the inter-

⁴Charles was in school again after the holidays. He says that the children have not been sent to the home. At one time he told me, "They may come for me any minute." At another time he said, "I think they are coming for me Wednesday." Fifteen days after school started, Charles was shifted to another school. He was never sent to the home referred to, although he repeatedly suggested to the observer that he might be sent to this place. Still later he was committed to a truant school (a resident institution), where he is at the present time. His brothers and sisters are still living with his father.

It will be observed that the interviews, from which excerpts are quoted above, are continuous, that is to say, the boy has been interviewed at different times over a long period. In this way, many of his statements which grow out of actual situations in which he is attempting to adjust himself are recorded. This method has an advantage over that in which the boy is interviewed in one or two sittings. His conflicts and experiences with his social world, reported at the time of occurrence or soon after, appear much more vivid to him than if they are reported, at one sitting, in retrospect. Also, by interviewing a boy about situations that have just occurred, the observer is able to get at the way in which the boy meets situations that confront him. By having a series of such interviews, one is able to obtain a picture of the boy's characteristic way of meeting the experiences growing out of his attempt to work out adjustments for himself.

viewer's home and that the interviewer has been in his home. Whenever he makes such statements, he says, "Didn't you, Mr. Whitley?" He then says, "When did you come?" or "When was I over to see you?" He seems to take delight in this association. He suggests to his friends, "You can come over next Sunday. I'll bring you over Mr. Whitley, will you be at home?" He has offered to bring a number of his friends to see me.

3. CONCEPTION OF RÔLE

For a statement of the boy's conception of the rôle he plays, one must examine the story as a whole. Note in the previous article ("The Observation of the Problem Boy")⁴ the defense reaction built up against his inability to read and write. He conceives himself as a leader in his group life, he boasts of his experiences with girls, he desires to become a fighter, he realizes the need of his help by the family, he resents being dominated by the Negroes, he dislikes school stating that he cannot learn and assigning as a cause the fact that he is in the particular school, he looks with pride upon and refers boastfully to the fact that the interviewer has visited his home and that he has been to the home of the interviewer, referring to this association often among the boys.

4. PROBLEM CONDUCT

The material given indicates something of the problems to be encountered in this boy's make-up. His stealing habits, his sex habits and his attitudes towards sex, his intense dislike of school—all are factors that are likely at any time to bring him into conflict with the adult world, or to lead to unfortunate consequences. His attitude towards school has already brought him into conflict often with the school regimen; and his conduct, according to the report of his teachers and judged on a basis of external difficulties in the school situation, has not changed. Whether his gambling habits will ever cause difficulties depends, of course, upon his later tendencies towards such conduct, and upon the manner by which he is treated if caught

⁴*The Journal of Educational Sociology*, February, 1930

gambling. Much will depend, too, upon the definition given such attitudes and conduct in the future social situations in which he travels.

5. FUNCTION OF INSTITUTIONS

In the above story, and in other stories of a similar kind, one can see the relative importance of the school in the boy's thinking. The process of learning and conditioning goes on, in and outside the school, and leaves many attitudes and experiences of the boy untouched by formal education. His activities, already mentioned, his experience in the home and in casual contacts on the street go on and he is conditioned by them, irrespective of the fact that he attends school and that he has been in boys' clubs and settlements. His attitudes towards the school, towards adult control, and towards the boys' club that he attended are clear enough, and, in the case of the school, are not such as to benefit him much. He is out from under the control of his home as well as the school. His mother before her death, and his father, indicate that they cannot do anything with him. He is unable to read and write, and obviously he has not made a satisfactory adjustment to his social groups. The importance of this to education is obvious.

6. THE IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL DEFINITION

The social definition of the situation seems important here. The definition of the situation and of the conduct befitting it is given by this boy's associates, in the groups which to him are most vital. He engages in the conduct mentioned because his friends do. Over six of his friends have been interviewed and observed, and they state that they share similar experiences, and that they do because others do. The definitions given by the school and the family are not a sufficient deterrent. What can be done about it is uncertain, but the fact remains that the boy accepts behavior patterns defined by the groups with which

he runs. Interviews with other boys, with a few exceptions, reveal a similar story. In some cases, the boy changes his conduct in certain respects, but he nevertheless shares the attitudes of the group which is vital to him. In the case of this particular boy, there are other factors to be considered, such as underdevelopment, defective intelligence, and subtle psychological factors in his make-up and experience which the interviewer may not have been able to sound, but, in any event, his personality has been subject to a process of conditioning such as has been indicated above. Other boys in the school have an intelligence no higher than his, are likewise underdeveloped, but do not manifest the problems that he does.

Not all boys, in fact, react to the school situation as this boy does. Many of them do not come into conflict at all with school authorities and teachers in the school where Charles is. The following report is that given by a boy who causes no trouble at all in school. (Age 14, I.Q. 55 on Stanford Binet, defective vision, bad tonsils.)

"I like this school, yes sir. I like this school better than the other one. I don't like the other because it is mixed up. They got all girls and boys I don't like girls there—when you passing on the street, the girls make a fool out of you. The girls queer everything. I don't want to go out in the street and pass them. The big guys make a fool out of you They say, 'Why don't you try to get out of there; why do you go to that school where all those goils are?' I don't like the teachers in the other school. None of them. They were wild teachers I don't like them. They tried to hit me. . . . They hit me for nothing I told a teacher not to hit me They wanted to hit me Why should they hit you for? When they tell your lesson, if you don't learn it, they hit. . . . I like Miss Wilson. I've had her. She never hits you, that teacher—never. You can be bad all you want to and she won't hit. She's good to you She makes you learn things you don't want to.

"I hit the teacher in the other school and got sent over here. She made a fool out of me She said I am good for nothing, I'm crazy, I ain't got no sense I made a mistake, I went to the teachers' room the first time I was in the school. She hit me, and I told her I made a mistake She made a fool out of me because I went into the teachers' room I didn't

know—I was new in the school. I didn't want her to make a fool out of me. She called me all those things before the class. They were all laughing at me. I didn't want them to laugh at me. I hit her with my fist. She sent me to the principal. The principal didn't say nothing; she wrote it down and sent me over here. I didn't want to go to that school where all the goils were. I tried to get out. I was absent, I was late, you might as well put down late, late, late all the time. I have the most friends over here. I like it better over here. They laughed at me over there. I used to get a smack, and then they laugh. . . . Over here, it's good."

7. STATEMENTS OF A BOY'S ASSOCIATES ABOUT HIM

Other boys that know Charles have given reports about him. A few of them are recorded here.

1. "Charles is a crook. He robs five and ten cent stores. He picks up bottles and hits boys on the head and runs away . . . I always see him with his gang when I go to work. I always see a package wid 'em that they have robbed; always a couple of guys looking around like . . . (makes a gesture to signify fear of capture). Guys at school don't want to fool around with him, because he will take a bottle and swing at them."

2. Leon tells me that Charles runs away from school. His parents do not know that he runs away from school. He will not come home until after school in the afternoon. Leon thinks that Charles is crazy. If he (Leon) were to run away from school, the teachers would hit him, but they don't hit Charles. Leon says that Charles doesn't have a gang. He thinks that Charles made up the name of his gang. He thinks that Charles is crazy and makes up a lot of what he says.

3. Ike told me that Charles came into his neighborhood with about fifty boys and tried to start a fight. They had bottles and knives. Ike and his gang retired to their cellar, because they didn't want to fight with Charles's gang, members of whom use knives and bottles. Ike says that Charles and his gang come around to his neighborhood often to start fights there.

4. This boy, who is a school monitor in the attendance office, says that he has trouble with Charles and his friend (the fourth one since I first met him). "They crazy, they run out, they come back with bags of chestnuts. They claim they buy them, but I don't know where, I can't follow them. They always fighting with that teacher in their room, they always giving him arguments, they always waiting for him

outside, they say they are going to break his head. They wait for him outside, they say they are going to break his head. They wait for him out in the street, they say, 'Wait until I get you.' They pick up rocks outside and say, 'You better not come out' There's no way to handle those guys. If you give them a beating, they're the same; if you put them away, they are the same. If you put them in a home until they are seventeen years old, that will straighten them out. If they see how they are about seventeen years old, they will start realizing."

5. Nick knows two guys in Charles's gang—his twin brother and his friend. He used to be a member of Charles's second gang. He used to meet with them around the block. Charles was the leader. "I was next to him. We used to go robbing on wagons. We rob apples, oranges, bananas, eggs, jelly, cherries, cakes, crackers. We eat them. We never got caught. Charles knows some cops down there that if they see you with a bag of apples they don't do nothing." He doesn't know why the gang broke up. He never goes around with them any more. He says that Charles goes with girls. He fools around with them.

6. Jimmie and Leon said today that Charles put his hands in his mouth to make him vomit so that he could go home. "The teacher gave him a pass to go home, so he can go home and play with his twin brother." Charles told Leon that his twin brother did not go to school today. "He goes crazy once in a while," Leon thinks. He fools around; that's why Jimmie likes him. He told the truant officer recently that Jimmie ran out of school. (Jimmie did not seem to be angry about this, other than resenting it slightly.) The truant officer gave Jimmie a beating. Jimmie thinks that the truant officer is a good guy. "He gives you a lot of chances before he does anything to you."

I asked the boys if Charles has a gang.

Leon: "For the love of Mike, believe him and he will tell you more."

Jimmie: "He ain't got no gang. His brother is not a prize fighter. He's crazy."

I asked the boys if he goes with girls.

Jimmie: "He goes with girls a lot. Sure, he plays doctor with them. He has played doctor with them about five of them. He calls them, like bad names." He tells Jimmie that he does. Jimmie doesn't know whether he does or not, beyond this.

7. Jimmie said in interview today: "When we go to the park to play ball, the cop chases us out. They always chasing

us. Sometimes if we stand around the corner, they chase us. They think we are going to rob. I don't rob now, I used to do it. When me and Charles robbed a truck. Charles robbed yesterday and got caught by a cop. He told the cop that he bought the stuff. He robbed it, of fruits like. The other time they did not catch us. The cop told Charles yesterday to put the stuff in the store and get out. . . Charles robs a lot."

Charles came in today right after Jimmie had given the above facts. Jimmie told him that we had been talking about him, and that he had told that Charles robs, whereupon Charles replied, "Jimmie robs and steals. He takes money out of his mother's purse. He robs trucks." Jimmie replied, "Don't you believe anything that he tells you, Mr. Whitley." "If you tell things on me, I'll tell things on you," Charles said goodnaturedly. . . . With this introduction from the boys, it was easy to draw them out further on the question of their stealing activities.

From such statements one is able to see the boy as he is seen by his associates. Reports from a number of his friends reveal the rôle they see him playing among them, and in the school situation. The reader will note in the statements given above that there is disagreement among the boys as to whether Charles had a gang. Jimmie lived five blocks from Charles in a thickly crowded tenement section, and met him at school. Leon likewise lived as far from Charles as did Jimmie. Leon, in addition, had a personal dislike for Charles which took outlet in scraps with him from time to time. It is uncertain that either of these boys knew Charles outside the school, as it is likewise uncertain that Charles had a gang. Several of Charles's friends outside of school have said that he had a gang. The teachers knew nothing about his outside contacts, except the truant officer who had found him often, when out of school, with his brother or one or two of his friends. His older brothers state that he does not have a gang, although they do not deny that he gets into various kinds of trouble such as is indicated in his story. The observer has never seen more than six boys with him who were his friends, either on the street, in the boys' club, or in his home. He has been seen, however, with this same

group of boys continually over a period of a year. It is entirely possible that he has reported his gang larger in number than it actually is, and that gang activities such as he has recounted are largely imaginative in his own case. However, he has not come into conflict with the school or with the police court on account of gang activities, so far as records to date show, except in one case noted here:

Charles had some trouble with one of the teachers in the school, and both he and his family demanded that the teacher be put out of the school. The principal reported that after it became evident that the teacher was not going to be sent away from the school, Charles brought a bunch of his gangsters to the school to beat the teacher up. The principal realized what these boys wanted, and would not allow them to enter the school.

During the time the boy has been studied, no complaints have been heard about his gang activities. Whether or not he had a gang, the fact that he has thought in terms of gang patterns is important. In any event, the statements from his friends given above throw interesting light on his status among companions.

7. USES OF THE BOY'S STORY

The use made of the boy's story will depend upon the purpose of the investigator. The teacher or school administrator may use it in attempting to understand the boy's behavior, in enlisting his interests, in changing the school situation to make him happy, or in changing him to a new situation. The boys' club leader and administrator may use it in discovering the groups vital to the boy, the types of games and play that he likes, the type of program that will appeal to him and his associates. The research worker may use it to illustrate the conception of the boy's social world as he sees it, his interests and wishes, his habits, his attitudes, experiences which to him are vital, problem conduct, the impact of the adult social world on

his developing personality, aspects of community life with which he comes into contact, the method by which (as he sees it) he works out an adjustment for himself or fails to work out such an adjustment.⁵

⁵The observation may be used to advantage in checking against the boy's statement of his attitudes. If, for instance, a boy states that he dislikes his teachers and the school situation, and if the boy is observed playing truant, coming into conflict with his teachers *in the school situation, running out of class, and explaining his conduct on a basis of this dislike*, this apparent causal connection will be interesting to investigate further. What is needed, in a study of attitudes, is an investigation wherein the subject's statement of attitudes concerning specified values is considered in relation to his overt behavior towards these values.

Such a check will be needed before any generalizations are made from the boy's story, or before the materials given by the boy are acted upon. Where the boy actually presents problem behavior in a specific situation, his own statement of his attitude towards the elements in the situation, and his own statement of the reason for his conduct in this situation, the person studying him has the boy's point of view with reference to behavior already observed. In the light of the boy's statement of attitudes towards a given set of values, his overt behavior towards these values assumes importance.

THE SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF THE SPECIAL-CLASS CHILD¹

PHILIP A. COWEN

Psychologists and psychiatrists have treated problems of mental deficiency to show their technical aspects. They have developed methods and techniques of examining people to determine the amount of deficiency and they have prescribed procedures for treatment. No attempt should be made to minimize the work which has been done by these people because without them we would be at a complete loss to diagnose mental difficulties. However, it is necessary that we assume the rôle of educational sociologists in order to tell what treatment should be given an individual after his case has been diagnosed. This is necessary because children live in a social medium rather than in a clinic or in a laboratory.

It may be well to call attention to the definition of a special-class child which is generally accepted in New York State. Special-class children are those who because of the lack of mental ability cannot keep up with the slowest moving group of a regular grade and yet may with suitable training become socially useful citizens. It is essential to notice the introduction in this definition of "social usefulness" as a measure of ability. The mental deficiency committee of England in its report for 1929 says:

" . . . The only really satisfactory criterion of mental deficiency is the social one, and if a person is suffering from a degree of incomplete mental development which renders him incapable of independent social adaptation and which necessitates external care, supervision, and control, then such person is a mental defective. . . ."²

There are other indications that social efficiency is being generally accepted as a measure of ability.

¹An address delivered before the special class teachers section of the Elmira Zone Meeting of the New York State Teachers Association, October 10, 1930

²Report of the Mental Deficiency Committee of England, 1929, Part I, p. 13, after S. P. Davies and F. W. Williams, *Social Control of the Mentally Deficient* (New York: Thomas Crowell, 1930), p. 6.

In order to determine whether or not the problem of adjusting a special-class child to society is different from the problem of adjusting a normal child to society the social contacts and associations of the two groups of children must be examined to find any differences which may exist. If the contacts and associations of a special-class child are no different from those of a normal child the same program of adjustment may be provided for a special-class child which is provided for a normal child. It is unfortunate that scientific data are inadequate to show the relationships of children to their various social groups so that it is necessary to proceed upon a more or less hypothetical basis until accurate data are available. However, this procedure may have the value of pointing out the way in which the problem in a particular situation should be approached.

An examination of the reports from clinics held by the State Department of Mental Hygiene indicates rather clearly that the parents of special-class children are frequently of low-grade intelligence. These records also show that homes of such children are often unhappy, immoral, unclean, poorly equipped, and located in an undesirable neighborhood. However, in a few cases the homes of special-class children are quite the opposite of this description.

When homes are poorly located the play groups of children are likely to be a bad influence upon their lives and since these homes are more than usually unattractive and the amount of parental control is often lax, the amount of time which special-class children spend with an unfavorable play group, such as a gang, is likely to be excessive.

As far as special-class children are concerned neighborhood groups with which they come in contact are likely to be very similar to their play groups. Neighborhood groups in these localities are the kind that would sanction if not encourage wrong tendencies which were possibly started in the younger play groups of the children.

The associations of special-class children in school may in some cases have the wrong effect. Children who are retarded mentally have been very generally failed and forced to repeat grades. They are taught the habit of failure with the result that they develop an attitude which is antagonistic towards all forms of social control. In this situation the school has not attempted to provide the kind of instruction which is adapted to the needs of special-class children.

Church groups cannot in this case be counted upon for a great deal of assistance because those children who should attend Sunday school or church are the least likely to do so.

These groups are the ones with which special-class children come into the most frequent contact. They seldom associate with groups of a more derivative nature than those mentioned. It seems to be quite clear that special-class children may be found associating with primary groups in a widely different manner than do normal children. However, this statement needs to be verified by accurate investigation in every single case. If it is true that the social situations of special-class children are as unfavorable and discouraging as they seem to be, the problem which exists in the correction or improvement of these situations is a very difficult one. It is especially difficult when one considers the short amount of time which a special-class child may spend in school and the comparatively long amount of time which he may spend under unfavorable circumstances. The critical question therefore, is What shall we do about it? One may ignore the problem but that would not solve it. Davies says:

The school which merely concerns itself with its mentally handicapped pupils during school hours and fails to maintain a close and helpful contact with the child's extraschool environment is closing its eyes to the larger part of its task. Every devoted special-class teacher becomes quickly aware of the importance of this need of following the mentally handicapped child into the home and community, and of bringing all possible forces to bear to correct conditions which tend to counteract

the work which the school is doing in developing the boy or girl into a social and economic asset.³

A similar point of view is given by King who says:

The school can scarcely be of great social service unless the teachers study the life of the community, mingle freely with the people, and by sympathetic contact with parents and homes learn something of the conditions under which school children are reared and something of the training they require for the life they will have to lead.⁴

These recommendations would impose considerable burden upon a special-class teacher. She would need to become personally acquainted with the parents of every child in her class to the extent of knowing the problems of each family and also the major community problems of a social nature which affect the child. There is no doubt but that a teacher should know and understand community social problems as well as the problems of her individual children. But the amount of time which she can devote to visiting homes is problematical. Davies solves the problem by saying:

Every school system which attempts to do special-class work should have an organized visiting teacher service on which the special-class teacher can call for assistance with these out-of-school problems.⁵

Granting that it is possible for a given teacher to become thoroughly familiar with the social problems of her children she has not yet remedied them. A program must be planned which will help each pupil improve his social situation.

There may be a need for assistance from outside agencies. If a particular family is found to be in unusual trouble a teacher may need to bring the difficulty to the attention of whatever social or welfare agencies may exist in the community for alleviating such difficulties.

If boys or girls are found associating with unwholesome play groups it may be necessary to shift the purpose of

³Davies and Williams, *op cit*, p. 306

⁴Irving King, *Social Aspects of Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1912),

p. 55

⁵Davies, *op cit*, p. 306

the groups. For instance, if a boys' gang is organized to engage in all of the mischief it can discover, the purpose of the gang may be shifted to one which is more socially acceptable by developing some common interest among the boys such as building model airplanes or whatever may attract and hold their attention. The important point is to divert their energy from unwholesome channels to activities which are socially and educationally profitable.

Teachers need to stress the ordinary values gained in primary groups by providing activities in school which result in the development of primary attitudes such as honesty, responsibility, etc. A suggestion towards this end is made by King who favors school government for every class. He says:

School government is often regarded as purely incidental to the intellectual training, or, if approached more directly, it is usually through talks, lectures, and general admonitions. But what boys and girls need is practice in the habit of responsibility, practice in discriminating between good and bad conduct, and for this the daily work of every school affords plenty of opportunity.⁸

The school program should center around activities which arouse interest in special-class children. These usually are constructive or manual in nature. They involve things which show results and progress to the children.

Miss Ethel Jones, a special-class teacher in Utica, has submitted a brief list of projects in handwork which her class had under construction. These articles are the kind which arouse interest in children and lend themselves to the correlation of related academic work which should be introduced during the period of interest. In following such a procedure the commonly recognized tool processes such as reading, arithmetic, writing, etc., are automatically used to the extent that they are needed in understanding academic material which is introduced. Therefore, drill in the tool processes becomes automatic. Weaknesses in these processes

⁸Irving King, *Education for Social Efficiency* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1913), p. 161.

may be corrected when they are discovered. At the same time, social adjustment occurs whenever a pupil learns how people live.

Miss Jones's pupils were making a four-poster bed. The materials used were a cigar box, clothes pins, and spools. Academic material which might easily be related with this project includes furniture catalogues for which letters might have to be written, books about furniture, and literature describing the kinds of wood from which beds are made. The children could easily be encouraged to make scale plans for their miniature beds and to draw pictures of different types of beds which they may have seen in books or stores. It may be necessary to visit a furniture store for which adequate planning should be made by the class. This project might easily lead to a study of springs and mattresses which are available, to the sources of material used in making blankets and sheets, to the cost of such material, to other kinds of furniture, to the cost of furnishing a room or a house, and older children could be interested in picking out furniture from a catalogue to furnish a certain kind of room within a given price. Another project which Miss Jones's children had under way was a wardrobe trunk. In this case the materials were a cigar box, large match boxes, and some brass hooks. Again academic material could be found in catalogues, newspapers, and magazines. It would be necessary for children making a trunk to prepare a working plan after having studied the different styles and sizes of trunks. The material from which large trunks are made should be studied in the literature furnished by trunk manufacturers and the reasons for certain kinds of construction could be brought out. This activity would lead to a study of different kinds of luggage and to the kinds which might be used for traveling to different places.

The girls in this class were making a doll's desk. They would be interested in seeing pictures of different kinds of desks and almost the same procedure could be followed

as in the previous illustrations. They were also making a doll's hope chest. In this activity the chest seems to be only the beginning because after it has been made it is necessary that it should be filled with various and sundry articles which the doll might need. All of these, of course, should be made by the pupil. The academic work connected with this project would be found in reading about different kinds of articles, the material from which they are made, the ways in which they are made, the cost of different articles, where they may be secured, and the story of why hope chests are filled by young ladies.

These children are also making aprons from cotton material which would give an opportunity to study about cotton growing, where and how it is grown, and by whom. This involves geography, nature study, and spelling. The cost of cotton goods would include arithmetic and thus again the academic subjects may be used to assist a child in understanding rather simple handwork activities. Both boys and girls in this class were making hooked rugs from burlap and wool. Burlap gives an opportunity for reading about the source of the material from which it is made, other uses to which it is put, and its cost, while wool gives an opportunity for studying sheep, where they are grown, how the wool is secured, how it is treated before it arrives in the classroom, how much it costs, and the other uses to which it is put. Activities conducted in this manner tend to give children a better understanding of the way people live. Thus the school may take its part in becoming an agency for social betterment by fostering wholesome attitudes, by improving social contacts of children outside of school, and by building habits of success, industry, and accomplishment, all of which constitute social adjustment.

WHO ARE THE VOTERS?

GEORGE F. DUNKELBERGER and ELDON K. RUMBERGER

The struggle for universal suffrage has occupied the attention of people for many years. It deserves special recognition in the history of man in his efforts to become increasingly free. The growth and development of the right of suffrage and the evolution of democratic government have been inseparable. Propaganda, picket lines, campaign oratory, and even political revolution have played their part in the great drama of suffrage. It is a long-drawn battle line from the day when voting was restricted to church members and property owners to the universal suffrage of the present day. It is scant twenty years since the question of the direct election of United States Senators was settled in favor of the voter, and only ten years since woman suffrage was guaranteed by a constitutional amendment.

Now since the citizenry of the United States have that for which they have so long contended, what use are they making of this much coveted right and privilege? This question seemed to the writers of sufficient importance to warrant a study of voters and voting. The main purpose of the study was to ascertain just what types and classes of people do the voting. Representative groups of voters in five different counties of central Pennsylvania were studied and classified according to their occupation or profession. The classification was as follows:

Class A: doctors, lawyers, teachers, ministers, engineers (civil, electrical, mining, etc.)

Class B: business men, manufacturers, large merchants, brokers, retired people

Class C: clerks, salesmen, stenographers, shopkeepers, and small manufacturers

Class D: skilled laborers, tradesmen, railroaders, mechanics, and farmers

Class E: unskilled laborers, housewives, domestics, etc.

The sources of the data were the voters' check lists of the various voting precincts. It is important to note that most of the check lists studied were of districts where the voter was required to register himself instead of being automatically registered by the assessor. This fact makes the results of the investigation all the more significant. It is difficult to understand why a man will register and then not vote. The results of this study are given in Table I,

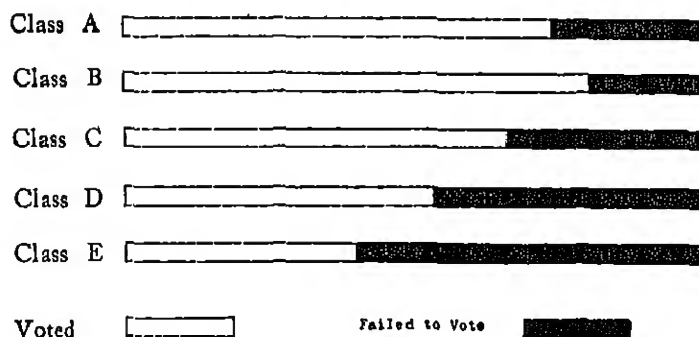
TABLE I
Tabulated results of 39,958 voters in five counties of Central
Pennsylvania

Class	(November 1930 election)				
	Number Registered	Number voted	Number failed to vote	Per cent voted	Per cent failed to vote
A	1,140	837	303	73.4	26.6
B	1,441	1,187	254	82.4	17.6
C	3,874	2,702	1,172	69.7	30.3
D	10,474	5,331	5,143	50.9	49.1
E	23,029	9,539	13,490	41.4	58.6
Total	39,958	19,596	20,362	49.0	51.0

while Table II sets forth the same facts in graphic form.

TABLE II

A graphic representation of the relative distribution of voters and nonvoters in the various social classes



The writers do not maintain that the results taken from a study of approximately forty-thousand voters will serve

as a foot rule to measure accurately the suffrage activities of all voters generally, but they do believe that the voters studied constituted a fairly representative group, consequently the results of the investigation can be taken as a fairly reliable index of the general attitude of individuals within different social classes towards their rights and privileges in franchise.

The conclusions reached can be summed up as follows:

1. People generally do not seem to appreciate fully the rights and privileges they have in franchise. Only about one half of the registered citizens vote. With this group as a whole this percentage is 49 per cent, but with the women alone only 41 per cent. Obviously the women are less appreciative of the right than are the men.

2. The unskilled laboring classes are the most disinterested in suffrage and consequently are the poorest voters; the professional group is the most interested in voting. The percentage of voters in the former group is almost the equivalent of the percentage of the nonvoters in the latter group.

3. Education sustains a high positive relationship to good citizenship as evidenced in the exercise of the suffrage right. Consequently, education can be taken as the remedial measure for the improvement of citizenship. What is needed in a democracy is a program of education that includes everybody, adults as well as children. Children do not inaugurate and promote community enterprises. Children do not enact and enforce laws. They have nothing to say about the governmental policies. All this is the work of adults. If there is anybody in need of keeping on educating himself, it is the adult even more than the child. Our adults as well as our embryonic citizens must learn that voting is a duty as well as a privilege. They must also learn that suffrage must be intelligently practised or else it is probably worse than no suffrage at all. Then and not before may we hope for better results than are indicated by this investigation.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY SHOULD MEAN TO THE TEACHER OF HOME ECONOMICS

SADIE OLIVER

"The time is ripe," says Dr. David Snedden, "to begin a careful examination of the possible contributions of sociology and social economy to education. The two sciences most fundamental to education are sociology and psychology. From sociology must come answers to the question, What shall be the aims of education? From psychology must come answers to the questions, What is the educability of the individual? and, How shall we best instruct, train, or otherwise educate towards predetermined goals?"¹

"The educational process," states Dr. I. W. Howerth, "involves the whole process of the organic, psychic, and social evolution of man."² There are two distinct divisions of this process, the scholastic and the extrascholastic. Sociologists perceive that the boundaries of education are not confined to the schoolroom. Mere observation shows that education takes place at all times, whether in the schoolroom or out of it. Scholastic and extrascholastic education refer only to the place where the process goes on. Without reference to time or place, the laws governing the process and the principles involved in controlling it will be exactly the same.

Since education in the school, the scholastic phase of the process is, as Dr. Howerth says, but a continuation of the evolutionary process beginning with the remotest ancestor of the child, the foundation of a science of education must lie in a knowledge of this process from beginning to end, in a knowledge of the organic, psychic, and social evolu-

¹David Snedden, *Sociological Determination of Objectives in Education* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1921), 322 pages

²I. W. Howerth, *The Theory of Education* (New York: The Century Company, 1928), xv+413 pages

tion of man. The evolution of a child individually and racially is biological, psychic, and social.^{13a} From this analysis, we may say that education as a science rests upon a tripod; namely, biology, psychology, and sociology "They are the foundation stones upon which any permanent science or philosophy of education must be erected."¹⁴

Educational sociology is concerned with the kind of knowledge worth while to the individual in relation to social groups. The ultimate goal is "social betterment." Now, why does a person need to be educated? Obviously, a study of the community and its needs and the relation of the individual to it should determine the aims and objectives of all concerned in the direction of this educational process. The environmental influence should develop the habits, knowledge, appreciation, aspirations, and ideals which promote health, wealth, knowledge, beauty, sociability, and righteousness.

Educators are beginning to see that lack of purpose in life is one of the pitfalls of modern youth. The responsibility for this lack rests largely upon the home and school, primarily the home, since a larger portion of the individual's time is spent in the home rather than in the school-room. Also a more natural and intimate relation exists among the members of the family. Fundamentally the home lays the basis of habits and attitudes which carry over into society outside the home. The question arises, Is home-economics education keeping pace with the needs of homemaking?

The primary objective in home-economics education is the improvement of society through the modification of the home. Is the knowledge of the structure of society of any value to the director of this most worthy process? Are judgments to be based upon scientific knowledge of the educational process, or do they rest upon dogma and prejudice? Without a knowledge of sociology, which is the foundation for the procedures in this phase of education,

^{13b}*ibid*

^{14b}*ibid*

home-economics education will continue to remain as it is today, a subject to be taught in the schools, a bit of information given the individual without reference to the ideals of social progress. But, the home-economics expert will say, courses are now being taught which include the sociological and psychological relations of the family and community. In most of the secondary schools, the curricula include separate units known as family and community relationships; child care and development; health and safety to the home and community; responsibility of members of the family group; home environment; home ideals; etc. But the teacher is without a foundation of scientific knowledge unless she is acquainted with sociological objectives, methods, and procedure.

From the following analysis of the home-economics curricula in ten teacher-training institutions, colleges, and universities it will be seen that the greatest number of hours required in sociology are nine, occasionally there are three; in four sociology is not mentioned. Teachers of home economics usually know what they would like to do, but from lack of sociological knowledge their attempts are often futile. (Table below.)

The following table shows the apportionment of hours in sociology required for graduation in home economics in ten of the institutions of higher learning.

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Hours re- quired for graduation</i>	<i>Sociology re- quired—Title of course</i>	<i>Home econom- ics— hours required</i>
1 Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Texas	1930	Term hours 180	.	0 51
2 North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Texas	1929	Quarter hours 180	.	0 48
3 Louisiana State Normal College, Natchitoches, Louisiana	1928	Quarter hours 210	Sociology 1 Sociology 2 Rural Sociology	3 3 3 51

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<i>Institution</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Hours re- quired for graduation</i>	<i>Sociology re- quired—Title of course</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Home econom- ics— hours required</i>
4. The Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas	1928	Seminar hours 120	Sociology	3	36
5. The Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana	1930	Quarter hours 192	Principles of Sociology Social Problems	4 4	48
6. Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, Oregon	1928	Quarter hours 192			57
7. East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina	1929	Quarter hours 196	Principles of Sociology	3	60
8. Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado	1930	Quarter hours 192	Introduction to the Social World General Soci- ology	4 4	60
9. University of Wyo- ing, Laramie, Wyoming	1929	Quarter hours 189			40
10. University of Illi- nois, Urbana, Illinois	1929	Seminar hours 130	Principles of Sociology	3	34

Present-day tendencies, as we all know, are threatening the stability of the home. Absence of family life within the home; the tendency to live beyond income; lack of parental control; prevalence of divorce; neglect of parents to be entirely truthful and law abiding—all these are prevalent. With a knowledge of the crisis in home life should come a general recognition of the educational responsibilities of marriage for young couples, and provision for formal education in the homemaking subjects

Not until the function of the homemaking subjects carry over into the home life of the individual will they

have the attention they deserve. Home-economics teaching has followed the line of least resistance. Methods have been didactic. "Lock-step teaching has been much easier than that which provides consideration for the personal equation."⁵ Hence, in many school systems, every girl has cooked exactly the same little amount of the same kind of food at exactly the same place in her course, and in her sewing has cut the same sized button hole in the same kind of cloth, darned with the same colored thread, at the same lesson period. Little effort has been made to adjust the problems to her need, to her intelligence, to her previous experience, or to her initiative. A degree of mechanical dexterity may have been acquired, but originality and a sense of personal responsibility have not been fostered.

In the light of educational sociology then, the content of the course in home economics of many schools must be changed, and the methods of teaching and administration must undergo radical modifications.

With reorganized courses, and administration improved by an increased knowledge of educational sociology, it may be predicted that the teaching of home economics in the schools will carry over into the life of the pupil. When the school and home become as one in their methods of attainment, there will be a respect for homemaking, keener interest in the home, right habits of health and neatness, skill in household operations, together with a spirit of helpfulness and the proper ideals for a wholesome family life.

⁵Department of Interior, Bureau of Education Reorganization of Home Economics in Secondary Schools

SNOBbishNESS AND EGOTISM

ROBERT P. CARROLL

Snobbishness and egotism are two of the most obnoxious of all the personality traits. They are closely related, and perhaps it would not be amiss to say that the former is one method of expressing the latter. They constitute an unfortunate type of behavior which may narrow the social scope and greatly interfere with the professional or business success of the otherwise best trained, most efficient individual.

These traits may cause the physician to have fewer patients, the teacher to have fewer students, and the merchant to have a far smaller number of customers. From childhood up the snob is left alone quite generally, unwittingly avoided, or deliberately shunned by many of his potential friends. He is often lacking in personal magnetism; is usually rather dry and uninteresting socially. If he "stoops" to talk to others his conversations are chiefly about himself. Very few deliberately seek his company; few praise him. He gets little commendation for his achievements and wonders why.

Disposition, as well as a lack of mental capacity, keeps many people from rising in the world. We see many young people who are brilliant in school who never go high in life. In some cases the real trouble is with the disposition. Snobbishness and egotism are two traits that tend to stimulate neglect, opposition, and sometimes persecution. These traits may also lead to unethical procedure on the part of the one possessing them, for if an individual thinks that "somehow" his opinions relative to certain matters are superior to those of others he may use rather questionable methods, if necessary, to get his ideas enforced. The discovery of such methods, of course, might cause him to be denounced as a "crook," while the matter would not be one of morality primarily, but one of disposition.

The oft referred to "authority complex" may easily be confused with snobbishness. An aversion to authority does not always result from "overbossiness" of parents or the meddlesomeness of older brothers and sisters. The snob simply does not want suggestions from other persons, and their title, position, or rank would have little to do with this attitude. He finds it hard to obey his employer, and difficult to coöperate with other people. He can hardly do teamwork, because this means a certain amount of "give and take," a matter at which he is extremely poor. On the whole, it is usually difficult for him to fit into a situation, which fact may prevent him from realizing his fullest possibilities and indirectly withhold from society his greatest potential contributions.

The snob may finally discover that he is very much alone; that somehow people do not "take to him"; that others who really have less native ability and education are promoted over him. He may maintain that he is not appreciated as much as he should be; that others are jealous of him; that after all it is his superiority that keeps him down in his present situation. Then there begins a difficult process of adjustment. He must satisfy himself more or less with his position, but at the same time protect his ego. The feeling of superiority is rather comfortable and satisfying, and he is likely to hold on to that somewhat like the paranoiac holds to his delusion of grandeur. As a matter of fact snobbishness and egotism in a weak individual might easily lead to the development of paranoia or some other form of functional insanity.

It is perhaps seldom that the confirmed adult snob overcomes the habit entirely. In college some forms of hazing are supposed to curb the tendency somewhat. In business the so-called "hard knocks" of life are thought to have some effect, but to produce any appreciable change often requires an awfully hard jolt. It may mean demotion in rank, the loss of social or professional prestige, or the

loss of a position with consequent difficulty in securing another.

Adulthood, however, is not the time to deal with various objectionable personality traits. They should be avoided in early childhood. Such types of behavior are not due to heredity but to education of the wrong kind. Snobbishness usually develops over a long period of time as a result of repeatedly snubbing others. Egotism may also develop slowly, or it may come about rather suddenly from overappreciation of some recent achievement or acquisition. These traits are inseparable from the idea of personal superiority. This idea may come from social position, a condition of wealth, or from actual intellectual superiority.

Mental superiority is one of the most common causes, and this is due primarily to inconsiderateness on the part of the home and the school. In most every schoolroom in which there are thirty or more children there is one who is much above the average in intelligence. If he is required to remain from year to year with children of less capacity there is hardly any way to avoid the development of a sense of superiority. In the mind and social habits of the more capable the matter of superiority becomes fixed without such a purpose or intent on his part. He develops a "superior air," an attitude of tolerance or condescension, or in other words the habit of snubbing. In later life when he meets with persons who are his intellectual equals he continues to make habitual responses.

In a heterogeneous group there are innumerable opportunities for the superior child to sense the difference between himself and those of less ability. In the socialized recitation the brighter pupil usually stands out. He may think more rapidly and clearly than the others, and may be considered more responsive. The teacher may unwittingly fall into the habit of calling on him to lead the discussion of most of the questions, or she may first ask the others to discuss, then go to him with an "expectant air"

after the others have made a poor showing. If compositions are written it is usually his that is picked out as the best, put on the bulletin board, or shown to the principal. When the supervisor comes in it is the brightest pupil whom the teacher asks to recite, and all the pupils know why. The bright boy usually gets the highest marks on periodical test and final examinations. He often gets 80, 90, or 100 per cent on a test on which many others get 30, 40, or 50 per cent. The brightest boy in most cases is elected president of his class, appointed class or hall monitor, is asked to run errands for the teacher, or to show visitors around the building, or to correct the papers of other pupils, and not infrequently to coach the duller pupils in various school subjects. The teacher has to explain things over and over to the average and to the dull, but the brighter pupil gets them quickly and with little or no effort on his part. All these and many other experiences drive home to the boy an inevitable feeling of superiority and day by day stimulate conduct in keeping with this feeling.

If the school gives a public program for the patrons or community it is usually the bright boy that plays the violin, piano, declaims, or takes part in a play. If several children take part in the public exercises they are generally the brightest ones chosen from different rooms. "I have been chosen" is a common exclamation heard by parents when the superior boy comes home from school and reports that his school is going to give some kind of a public performance. The bright boy, thereby, has an opportunity to "show off" before the whole community and may receive numerous compliments from prominent persons outside of the schoolroom. Consequently, both inside and outside of school he is impressed more and more with his own ability and less and less with the ability of others in his immediate group. Needless to say, the tendency to be snobbish becomes more and more firmly fixed.

Homogeneous grouping in school would help greatly

in an effort to prevent the development of such an objectionable character or personality trait. If a superior boy is put into a group of his equals there is far less opportunity to stand out in the recitation, to surpass all others in writing compositions, to excel always in tests and examinations. When the supervisor comes there are many to recite in such a way as to reflect credit upon the teacher. The teacher asks different ones to run errands, to correct papers, and the like. Bright pupils often resent the "coaching" efforts on the part of one who "thinks" he is the brightest. To learn as fast as the class requires alertness, concentration, and work. To be chosen for public performances means keen competition. Also several may be selected from the same room. Homogeneous grouping, therefore, would not develop an exaggerated idea of self-importance nor an attitude of contempt for the ability of a pupil's associates.

Such traits as snobbishness and egotism are quite different from merely having confidence in one's self. Self-confidence is one of life's greatest necessities. It is a great asset and is inseparable from an attitude of self-respect, which stimulates care and regard for what one says and does. Those who have a part in the educational program should encourage children to have the proper amount of self-respect and self-reliance, but should work guardedly against the development of an exaggerated feeling of superiority that might carry with it an attitude of disdain and contempt for other persons.

A SOCIAL WORKER LOOKS AT ITALIANS

(An Appreciation)

ELOISE R. GRIFFITH

At first, eight years ago, when I came to do family social work in Nutley, New Jersey, where forty per cent of the entire population was Italian, I did not understand Italians and their ways. They puzzled me

What was the best way to approach these strange dark-eyed people with their beautiful language, their clannish old-world customs, their ideas of home and family life so different from the ways of Anglo-Saxon people?

It was not difficult to like them, for they were always polite and usually cooperative, since I came always as a friend sent by the school or the hospital to help them out of trouble. They began to understand that "social service" meant helping them to solve their problems in what was to them a strange, complicated environment full of snares and pitfalls unless they were wary. They never could say Griffith. The nearest they ever got to that name of many consonants was "Mista Grifta"

I well remember some of the early cases I encountered. A troubled mother would come to my office asking advice about some problem in her home. She would ask me to "close up" a recalcitrant boy, or "scare" a daughter who had begun to work in a factory too early in her adolescence, and who had begun to imbibe some of the smart notions of young American girls. Usually there were eight or nine children and nearly always they were going to "buy a babee, by and by." And they do "buy and buy"!

A tired, gray haired man came to my home one evening, to ask assistance in getting his "stepa"-wife home from the County Hospital for the Insane. (His first wife had died leaving him many children, and he had taken a second wife, rather from desperate need of some one to care for the children than for love of her. Perhaps that is one

reason why she lost her reason.) This man's great anxiety for his children impressed me; his sense of fatherhood was deep and real. His beautiful brown eyes told a story of intense suffering; but when he smiled, his flashing white teeth helped to add charm to his finely cut features. He diagnosed his own trouble as having "too mucha kids."

The Italians do not believe in birth control. Their fecundity is amazing. They take their children gayly, as a rule, the women bearing them with very few complaints about the suffering or hardships which children necessarily bring to them. Their homes are for the most part clean, though bare, save for highly colored pictures of the "Holy Family" or little images of the Virgin and Child. One thing is universal in their homes—beautifully kept, and wonderfully made-up beds. They have the greatest pride in bedspreads, which usually show a vast amount of handwork.

I came to love Italian people as I understood them a little better. I have even come to have a kind of respect for some of their superstitions! Who would not keep up the practice of shaving little children's heads on the first Friday of March (or is it April?) for the sake of the glorious hair which inevitably results therefrom? Brown-black, glossy, beautifully soft in texture, and with an adorable wave or curl! And the teeth and eyes of the little children! I've seen all sorts of eyes—sore eyes, cross eyes; blue, grey, and black—but the eyes that melt my heart are the large, wide open, wistful, brown eyes of Italian children. The children are shy, for the most part; they say very little when the social worker visits in the home, but they display very pretty manners and a gentle friendliness, by and by, which is engaging. And how gay and joyous they are at play when no one is watching them!

These increasingly interesting Italian people came to show me a lovely hospitality. Whether I spoke their language or not—they came to understand and to appre-

ciate the language of the heart, which is universal. Going in and out among them as a friend or "Red Cross nurse" (as the children sometimes call me), they have taken me into their warm, ardent hearts. They always dust off a chair for me in the big, colorful kitchen, and offer a glass of homemade wine. In one section of Nutley there are two little streets entirely Italian in population. They are named "Humbert" and "Roma." There is an adorable rascal of a boy named Peter in the neighborhood who always manages to spy me out as I leave the little Ford car at the corner. (Humbert and Roma Streets are narrow, and overflow with children and goats.) He races home, dons an old overseas cap of one of his brothers (now completely paralyzed), grabs the family dishpan and some sort of a stick, and before my first visit is made, Peter has organized a procession of which he is the leader. He goes before the crowd of children who gather quickly shouting "Here comes the Red Cross nurse," beating the tin dishpan as loudly as he can, to the great delight of the neighborhood.

My work includes Red Cross activities in Home Service. One of the most touching cards I ever received was from an Italian widow (her husband had just died as a result of his injuries in the war). She never knew my name; but directed the card to "Mrs. Red Cross." I shall always keep that card.

They have such a keen sensitiveness to beauty—these Italians! Beauty in many forms—a sunset, music, art! How jealous they are of the beauty of purity in their daughters—those shy, modest, slim, olive-skinned girls of the wavy hair and the soft brown eyes! Cannot our American girls learn from these of an older race some of the charm of mystery about sex matters? Are our "wise" young girls any lovelier or more attractive for their greater knowledge of sex affairs, their cigarette smoking, their hard-eyed sophistication? I doubt it!

The Italian people I have met have taught me a great

deal; but it is their language which has completely won my heart. They don't *spea*k Italian; they *caress* the words. The beautiful, rich, musical inflections, the lovely liquid vowels make our English a haish, flat affair. There is beauty even in the language of furiously angry Italians. Their words rush forth like Niagara Falls; but there's much music in the rush! It is not all noise!

I have begun the study of Italian, and am practising on my beloved clients. How their faces light up when I say "Buon giorno!" or "Come sta Lei?" (good morning and how do you do?) Of course, they laugh at my clumsiness in trying to get the Italian inflections; but they like my effort to learn their language and appreciate that it means an affection for them which makes me desire to understand them better.

Their appreciation of the social work among them during my stay in Nutley has been touchingly displayed in the last few weeks since they have known that "Mista Grifta" is going away.

Mrs. Perrino, a delicate woman married to a very difficult feeble-minded man, whose troubles have been peculiarly heart breaking, came to say goodbye the other day. "You have been my friend, Mista Grifta. You are my motha-sist', brother—you cared. My Angelina—you get her job, my Jimmy you maka him supporta the children and me. Who will do these things when you go away? I 'ppreciate whatta you did to me all these years. Please, coma my house and eata the spaghetties witta me and my childrens before you leave!" Then her gorgeous eyes filled with tears, and her shoulders shook with sobs. By and by when she got quiet, she pulled a little package out of the bosom of her neat black dress. The box was carefully wrapped in white tissue paper and tied with gay ribbon. Inside was a pair of round garters, crocheted in an intricate pattern of red, white, and green, the Italian colors. The gift made me choke, for I realized the time she had spent working on those garters, hours late at night when she

should have been in bed. For Mrs. Perrino has to supplement what her husband earns by working during the day, and must care for her four children and her home in the evenings.

In Mrs. Spasato's living room in Nutley there was just one bit of color, for Mr. Spasato had died recently and the hearts of the widow and seven little children were heavy. I had been able to help secure a widow's pension for Mrs. Spasato which enabled her to stay at home and care for her children. It was a perfect hydrangea, drying in a tall glass vase. The rich, warm dark reds and the soft dull greens and yellows were beautiful. With great difficulty (for her English was imperfect and my Italian was worse) she tried to persuade me to take the hydrangea. "It will lasta you all winter. It won't die," said Mrs. Spasato. "Grazie, multo grazie," I replied. "But I cannot take it from you." Determined to give something which she cherished (for Italians dearly love flowers and growing things), she went into the sunny kitchen and brought back a tiny begonia which had been blooming on the window sill. It had one bright red blossom. Mrs. Spasato pressed me to take it. Then the man of the house, Vincent, aged 14, who had grown up into a dignified young man since his father's death, gravely added his persuasions to those of his mother. I had to leave abruptly.

We Americans in our pride of wealth and industrial enterprise forget the great cultural contributions which some of our "foreigners" are bringing to us. We are deeply indebted to Italy, it seems to me. We cannot afford to look down on the poorest of a people who inherit a Dante, a DaVinci, a Michelangelo, and a Savonarola! These men who were intellectual and spiritual giants in the background of the Italian people have contributed light and progress which have sent the world far forward. The brilliancy shed from these stars will light many generations to come along the paths which lead to the best things in life—beauty in religion, in art, in literature, and patriotism.

So I have come to love Italian people, not only for what they have taught me of the background of their age-long customs and their family relationships; but for the responsive warm-heartedness, for the charm and the affection which I have found in them during the eight years of social work among them in Nutley. I love them enough to refuse to go to live in any community where I cannot hear their musical language spoken and have the privilege of working and making friendships among them.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

The following statement was presented by Frederic M. Thrasher, associate professor of education, New York University, at the Conference on Educational Research held in Albany at the call of the State Department of Education on March 27, 1931. Representatives of the various divisions of the State Department and the various universities and teachers' colleges were present

RESEARCH PROBLEMS IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

The question as to how the school can best serve the needs of the community in a changing world is one which calls for our best research efforts. The answer can only be based upon facts derived from extensive and thorough investigation. These facts are necessary to supplant our present superficial and limited impressions with regard to many phases of this problem. Generalizing about the public schools is a fallacious procedure and its results are unreliable unless it is based upon scientific research.

Two phases of the question of school-community relationships present themselves for investigation. It is important in the first place to discover what the needs of the community are, a quest which belongs neither to philosophy nor to armchair theorizing, but to science and scientific research. It is important, moreover, to determine just how education as now organized is actually meeting supposed community needs in a variety of social backgrounds. Facts only are wanted here.

In some cases needs are well demonstrated, but the question as to how well education is meeting them still remains enigmatical. It may be discovered, indeed, that all the devices necessary for meeting community needs are already being carried out by schools attacking problems in different situations. Just what the schools and other educational agencies are doing in these respects must be

ascertained. It will be possible on the basis of these findings to enrich the work of institutions which are meeting situations in a meager way by making more general methods which are already successful in actual practice.

The basic problem of research is to discover what relationships between school and community can best achieve the purposes of education and social efficiency. A number of specific problems appear for consideration:

1. *School use of community resources.* It is necessary to determine to what extent and how schools are actually using community resources in a variety of situations. Such a study needs to be comparative of one situation with another in evaluating the results obtained. Furthermore, it is desirable to ascertain what resources in the community are available for school use which are not now so employed and how they can be utilized in improving the educational program

2. *Use by the community of school resources.* How is the community actually using the resources of the school? In social-center activities, for example, and other programs involving the wider use of the school plant. In what other ways may the community profit by the use of the resources of the school?

3. *Control and attempted control of education by social forces in the community.* In America, public education is a governmental function; but government is also a political function. The question arises immediately, therefore, as to the political control of the public-school system. What is the nature of this control and how is it exerted? In what ways do politicians interfere with the efficient and progressive development of schools? Research into control of education in our cities by political machines is desirable, but a task which requires tact and patience and, perhaps, courage. In this connection the political activities of teachers, teachers' groups, principals, superintendents, school boards, and other educational officials need to be studied in order that facts may be ascertained for ridding

the schools of demoralizing and sometimes corrupting influences.

Another problem arises out of the attempts of minority groups to control education through propaganda and legislation. Such groups are often interested in creating public opinion through education in order to further their own particular programs. They hope to create attitudes favorable to their ideas by indoctrinating children who when they are matured can wield the ballot or exert other types of social influence. The activities of public utilities, of patriotic and fraternal organizations, of religious sects, of organized labor, and of business groups invite research in this connection. In the case of business groups the activities of trade associations and of the manufacturers of school equipment, such as that used in visual education, need to be investigated.

Many of the problems enumerated in the preceding paragraphs fall within the field of social conflict. This may discourage the timid inquirer or the members of the educational personnel who feel that they are dependent upon politicians or special interests for favor. Yet if rational solutions are ever to be worked out it is necessary that all pertinent facts and points of view be ascertained by thorough and extensive research. Such findings may then serve as an adequate basis for expert consensus.

The findings of such investigations, furthermore, can only serve their purpose when they are given wide and impartial publicity in order that the educational and general public may understand the issues involved and be able to act more intelligently upon them. It is obvious that our impressions may tell us what ought to be done; common sense may also dictate solutions; and our prejudices may be eloquent in these matters; but what we need above all is carefully ascertained facts to make a clear case for any proposed program of improvement.

The relation of education to the solution of specific community problems is one which should involve careful

consideration. What are the actual programs of the schools which are now operating towards the solution of such problems? What more needs to be done along these lines? Take, for example, the problem of community health

4. *The relation of education to the problem of community health.* One phase of this problem which needs to be investigated is the carry-over of health habits supposed to result from health education from the school to the non-school situation. Another important problem grows out of the differences in morbidity and mortality in different local areas in a given community—differences which indicate varied needs with regard to the development of health education. If it is found, for example, that one local area has a high tuberculosis rate, it is obvious that the health-education program for people living in that area should use methods which will inculcate ideas and behavior patterns designed to prevent this particular disease. Another important phase of the health problem is the result of differences in social backgrounds of various school constituencies such as those represented by racial, immigrant, economic, and cultural levels. These differences result in varying needs for health instruction.

5. *The relation of standardized curricula, school activities, and methods to variations in local communities.* This raises the question as to how far standardized curricula, standardized extracurricular activities, standardized methods of teaching, and so on, can meet varying needs and capacities due to different cultural and economic backgrounds in a wide range of local communities. Take, for example, the simple case of hunger. In a period of unemployment actual starvation may threaten children attending a given school. In such a case a soup kitchen operating at noon may be desirable. On the other hand, even in a high-grade residential area in periods of prosperity, an exclusive private school may find it necessary to feed its children at noon because their governesses and maids neglect to feed them properly in the morning.

6. *The education of cultural and racial minorities.* The research problem here is to determine the needs and survey the present practices with reference to the education of cultural and racial minorities. Take, for example, the education of the American Negro—a much neglected field. What does the Negro need that standard (or below standard) education does not give him? How may this be provided? The education of Porto Rican and Mexican children in the American community has become another serious problem. The education of the American Indian with reference to his particular needs is also a case in point. The question of the education of the child of the immigrant in accordance with his needs as dictated by his cultural and social backgrounds and by his future adjustment to the American community is important. Here we have to deal with the problems of the children of parents of Italian, Russian, Jewish, Polish, Japanese, and many other diverse nationalities.

7. *The use of leisure time in relation to the schools.* What is the proper relationship of the school to the organization and use of the child's leisure? Here we need the facts on practices in various school situations. First, what direct control of spare-time activities is exerted by the school? The answer to this question involves the consideration of such activities as those of the school playground and social center, field trips, school clubs, homework, and so forth. In the second place, we need facts bearing on the indirect control of the child's spare time in the development of hobbies, the school stimulation of outside cultural activities, and so forth. One of the criticisms leveled at the school in relation to delinquency prevention is that it does not properly provide for the spare time of the child. In this connection the problem of the "tired teacher" arises in relation to the direction of after-school activities. There is the contrary criticism, on the other hand, on the part of some recreational and leisure-time agencies which protest that the school tends to absorb

all the child's spare time and encroaches upon their programs. Here again carefully ascertained facts are needed to guide school policies and programs.

A further special problem arises as to the relation of the school to the child's spare time during periods of unemployment when children with working certificates are unable to obtain positions and in certain areas spend their leisure time on the streets, in undesirable pool rooms, or in engaging in demoralizing pastimes.

8. *The relation of the school to crime prevention.* One of the outstanding social problems facing the American people today is crime. The direct cost of crime in the United States has been estimated by the National Board of Underwriters at \$2,000,000,000 yearly. The estimate of indirect cost runs as high as \$16,000,000,000 to \$18,000,000,000 each year. Last year there were 80 bank robberies in the State of Illinois and in the City of Chicago there is one robbery in every hour and twenty-five minutes. The annual crime bill for Manhattan is \$100,000,000. When considered in connection with racketeering this is an alarming problem which should engage our best efforts to solve.

Two outstanding facts in regard to the crime problem have been well demonstrated and each of them is of cardinal significance to education. In the first place it has been shown that criminals are bred in certain definite local areas in cities. This has been demonstrated by the study of delinquency areas made in Chicago by Clifford R. Shaw.¹ The New York State Crime Commission is the authority for the statement that only ten or twelve local areas in New York breed criminals. These are not the areas where crimes are committed necessarily but where delinquents live. A follow-up study by Shaw seems to indicate that similar conditions exist in dozens of other American cities where the young criminal develops in areas corresponding to those studied in Chicago and New York.

¹Clifford R. Shaw, *Delinquency Areas* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929)

The other outstanding fact which is of importance to education is that criminal careers begin in adolescence. Many studies indicate that this is true. In Manhattan 41 per cent of the crime is committed by boys under 21 years of age. A study made by the New York State Crime Commission indicates that one half of the professional criminals begin their careers as truants from school. The notorious Valley Gang in Chicago has had a history of over 30 years and began as a group of truants.

The crime problem is primarily one of prevention rather than deterrence; and prevention largely resolves itself into a question of education. The question at issue here upon which research is needed is: What part shall the school take in such a preventive program? It has been pointed out that all the ills of society have been blamed upon the failure of the public schools. There is, no doubt, a tendency to exaggerate the responsibility of the school in this connection. It has been pointed out, furthermore, that in many cases where the schools fail, the difficulty is in the breakdown of the homes of truants and potential delinquents. This, however, only gives the schools an added responsibility for a more effective program for those whose family life has become demoralized and ordinarily cannot be made to contribute sufficiently to the child's development.

Research is needed in the following fields to give education an adequate basis for its program of crime prevention: (1) the nature and effectiveness of character education; (2) the nature and effectiveness of citizenship education; (3) the nature and effectiveness of programs of child guidance and clinical adjustment; (4) the nature and effectiveness of the visiting teacher program; (5) the nature and effectiveness of the parent-teacher association and parent education.

It should be pointed out here that the school alone cannot prevent crime. Informal education which takes place outside the formal school program is far more potent in

this connection than the formal school program. This is primarily a problem of community organization; viz., to integrate the program of the school with that of the church, the home, and the recreational and family welfare agencies in order to perform a function which must be planned with reference to the total community situation. Studies need to be made in this connection to compare school programs whose pupils show high delinquency rates with those who show low delinquency rates in order to ascertain where the causative factors lie and to determine what devices are being promoted by the schools to handle the situation effectually.

What effective work along these lines is being undertaken with regard to character education? The acid test of any educational program is the performance of its product. The community would judge that a program of character education either had broken down in a situation which develops great numbers of delinquents and gangsters or it would be forced to the conclusion that the problem was one upon which the school needed the collaboration of other social agencies of the community and a coordination and adjustment of its program to a community plan. The effectiveness of citizenship training must be similarly judged. If in a metropolitan community a half million people register votes for a political character who is openly known as vicious and corrupt, it may be assumed that whatever citizenship education exists is ineffectual.

The studies of child guidance and clinical adjustment programs must be made similarly with reference to actual results obtained with children handled. Here again comparative studies are desirable in order to find significant differences between programs which have low and high records of success.

The visiting teacher, parent education, and parent-teacher programs need to be similarly tested and evaluated.

Where actual efforts at community integration of social agencies for crime prevention have taken place, as they

have in a few instances in this country, they need to be studied.

A consideration of this problem leads us to emphasize the importance of developing programs of community planning which shall see the problems of the community as a whole in their settings and interrelationships and not merely from the standpoint of a given organization's performing its own particular function in isolation from other community functions. What is the relation of the school organization, plan, and objectives to the whole community program and plan? The whole question of social planning (based on research) with reference to future community progress becomes a vital one in this connection.

Three additional problems of school-community relationship which require further research to secure a factual basis for their solution may be mentioned.

9. *To what extent do community needs actually determine the content of teacher-training courses?* This raises the question as to what extent teachers, principals, superintendents of schools, as well as members of school boards are equipped with a knowledge of differences in social backgrounds of community organization, of the need for social planning, and of the importance of the factual approach, as opposed to the philosophical or controversial method, in solving educational community problems.

10. *How can the general and educational public be stimulated to support progressive education as it touches school-community problems?* An example is the need for the financial support of a school program adequate to reduce the "factory system" and mass production methods of metropolitan secondary education where high schools sometimes include from 6,000 to 9,000 children and where it is impossible even for the principal to know his own teachers. In the last analysis the efficiency of such production depends, of course, upon a factual study made in order to compare the products of this system with other types of education. If it is assumed, however, that the only rea-

son for such huge school units is financial and goes back to the motive of reducing overhead costs, this problem is one of educating the community to spend more money on its school system.

This problem also involves the question of the relation of the schools to the press and especially of the educative influence of sensational and tabloid newspapers upon children.

11. *The study of school community relationships as worked out in other countries.* Many other countries have a great deal to contribute to our knowledge of how education may be developed to serve community needs. This is particularly true in the Scandinavian countries where the folk schools of Denmark have aroused widespread interest. It is true in the Russian situation where Soviet education is made directly to serve the purposes of the community. Education in the Turkish and Italian situations needs to be studied to determine if it has any contribution to make to American educational methods and these modern systems may well be compared with those of more preliterate nature peoples where education is a less reflective function.

BOOK REVIEWS

Personal and Public Health, by WILLIAM BURKARD, RAYMOND CHAMBERS, and FREDERICK MARONEY. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1930, 505 pages.

Safety Town Stories, by MILDRED MILES ROBERTS. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1930, 96 pages.

Personal and Public Health is a continuation of a series in which the emphasis is placed on health habits and, while the grade for which it is to be used is not indicated in the text, it appears to be adapted to about the sixth grade. The book places a minimum emphasis upon the facts of physiology and bodily functions with the attention largely upon the health practices. To this extent the book is in line with recent development in health. The book is neatly bound and attractively printed and ought to appeal to pupils and teachers alike.

The second book, *Safety Town Stories*, prepared for the primary grades, consists of a series of stories designed for emphasizing the importance of safety action. I doubt whether the book will serve the purpose of developing safe practices, but it is so attractively presented and the stories carry such interest as will make it acceptable as a supplementary reader for the primary grades.

E GEORGE PAYNE

Fads, Frauds and Physicians, by T. SWANN HARDING. New York. The Dial Press, 1930, 393 pages.

I boarded the steamer at New York for Norfolk at noon one day in order to get out of reach of the telephone so that I could get together some material for the survey of several Southern colleges which was to begin the following day.

I took with me a book which I hoped also to look through for purposes of review. As I had a few minutes before lunch I opened the book and began to look through the first chapter. The interest in the book was so compelling that I read the three hundred and ninety-three pages, including footnotes and appendices, without stopping, forgetting the main object I had when I boarded the steamer. The book is the one under review, *Fads, Frauds and Physicians*.

The author of this book has a motive for writing it, namely, the forwarding of the movement towards the public control of medicine in the United States, and he presents the suggestion that medicine be organized along the lines of the Public Health Service, the Bureau of Animal Industry, and the Food and Drug Administration. At least these are examples of what could be done in the control of factors affecting the medical situation. In order to make his case he has marshaled some facts about medical quackery, intelligence, science,

errors, and journalistic advertising. Space does not permit me to discuss this book in detail nor even to express my opinion of the author's data but this can be said: The author of this book has put the American Medical Association on the defensive and it will have to do more than call names. It will have to answer the arguments presented or lose status with the layman who reads this book.

I wish every reader of the JOURNAL would read this book for several reasons: First, it is highly interesting in itself; second, it contains many facts the public ought to know and particularly the teacher of children whose business it is to pass on knowledge, and third, the author raises some fundamental problems which the public will sooner or later have to settle. In fairness to the medical fraternity the reader should, however, keep an open mind until he has examined both sides of the problem.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

The Unemployed, by RONALD C. DAVISON. London: Longmans, Green and Company, 1929, 292 pages.

What to do with the unemployed has always been a perplexing problem, and to this day remains far from a satisfactory solution. Mr. Ronald C. Davison, in his book, *The Unemployed*, presents a graphic picture of the historical aspects of unemployment in England and the various methods devised to cope with the situation from time to time. The author then proceeds to give an account of relief works, that is, providing the unemployed with public or semipublic work. In most projects of this nature there persists the fallacious notion of "creating work," for the general aim is to exact a task from the unemployed. The work may be necessary or unnecessary; it may be useful here and there, or in anticipation of a future need, or simply invented to provide temporary employment. Emphasis is placed upon the fact that it costs the government about four times as much to provide for a given number of families through relief works as it does through unemployment insurance benefits. Moreover, the amount of work which the State can create by such methods is insufficient to have any material effect upon the labor market.

The treatment of the Unemployment Insurance Scheme, its advantages and its shortcomings, is complete and illuminating. The book contains a valuable analysis of the unemployed classes and their specific problems, which, the author assures us, cannot be settled by the mere provision of maintenance. Mr. Davison points out that contributory unemployment insurance properly administered provides for the needs of the competent worker, who, in normal times commands a ready market for his services. Contributory insurance is simply a way of spreading out the collective earnings of such workers so as to maintain them and their families through the vicissitudes of their callings. But insurance in itself will not provide a solution for workers dispossessed of their trade through industrial changes. Their great need is for industrial training, and an opportunity to enter new occupa-

tions Nor will insurance solve the problem of the inefficient persons who suffer from a comparative ineligibility or incapacity to obtain or retain employment It is for the two latter classes that special provision must still be made. The attempts to stretch the Unemployment Insurance Scheme to cover the needs of all three groups have been fraught with weighty consequences which still endanger the entire unemployment insurance structure.

EARL E. MUNTZ

Abnormal Psychology, by H. L. HOLLINGWORTH. New York: The Ronald Press, 1930, 590 pages

In this stimulating work the author has attempted "to feature the systematic aspects (of mental abnormalities) rather than the expediences" He is primarily concerned with the development of logical and verifiable concepts that will serve, perhaps, as stable groundworks on which therapeutic techniques may be built up.

The work first briefly surveys the beliefs in abnormal psychology historically, then views the contemporary conceptions Following these the chief abnormal personality categories are described and interpretive accounts are attempted. It is needless to say that the interpretations become less adequate as the more involved deviations are considered

Probably the aspect of the book that will most interest the reader, whatever his persuasion in the field, is the incisive attack Dr. Hollingworth delivers at the school of thought referred to as "the psycho-analogical (sometimes meaninglessly called 'psychoanalytical') " The psychoanalytical schools, Freud, Adler, and any of the others, have, as every student knows, laid themselves open to wide attack by their mysticism, demonology, animism, and generally uncritical and ingenious invention of new concepts any time an explanation is desired By taking some of the most moderate of the psychoanalytical reports (instead of some of the mass of possible grotesque ones) and pointing out wherein the psychoanalysts have assumed entities ad lib, and how simpler objective explanation will better explain the same facts, Hollingworth has done a great service

Hollingworth's general interpretations are, in the mind of the reviewer, grounded somewhat too exclusively on the experimental work with soldiers previously reported in *The Psychology of the Functional Neuroses*. This is perhaps necessary at this time since we are all aware of the scarcity of the experimental evidence in this field (the psychoanalytic being clearly only subjective description)

In brief this reviewer believes Hollingworth's critique of the psychoanalytic vogue admirable; his own interpretations helpful; and his work as a whole a monument to the necessity for research in this field.

DONALD SNEDDEN

La Pedagogia e La Vita, by GIACOMO TAURO. Milan, Italy: Albrighi, Segati and Company, 1930, xxii+421 pages.

The author of this volume is one of the leaders in Italian thought today, along with Croce and Gentile. He is professor of philosophy of education in the University of Cagliari, Sardinia. Ten stout volumes and some three dozen smaller pieces stand to his credit. He has written on Pestalozzi, Montaigne, general pedagogy, concentration, culture and science, the training of elementary teachers, the education of the spirit, and contemporary Italian pedagogy.

The argument in the present volume is set forth in four parts, dealing with such current questions as the university, culture, the Italian education ideal, the social value of tradition, current pedagogical principles, the education of the new Italy, the philosophy of the spirit, the vocations and professions, and physiological and mental gymnastics. Special studies of three Italian scholars, Villari, Nisio, and Fornelli, and two Frenchmen, Compayré and Ribot, are also included.

The author is a philosophical idealist and is noted for having found a place for silence in the educative process. His contribution to pedagogy is well worthy of a special monograph in English. He has visited America, attending the International Congress of Philosophy in Cambridge in 1926.

HERMAN H. HORNE

New Russia's Primer, by M. ILIN, translated by GEORGE S. COUNTS and NUCIA P. LODGE. Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931, 162 pages.

In the midst of this period of economic depression we are perhaps in a frame of mind to read books relating to experiments designed to effect a better social organization than the present one. For that reason the book under review is likely to appeal to the American reader but it is not for this reason that it will have its greatest appeal.

I am in full agreement with the translator when he says:

Although the author was entirely unknown to me at the time, a single glance at the contents of the book convinced me that here was a document of rare quality. A careful examination corroborated and strengthened this first impression at every point. I showed it to my friends, and they were all of the same opinion. Practically every page carries the marks of genius. I decided at once, therefore, that it should be made available to the American reader.

The book gives a summary of the Five-Year Plan in contrast with the generally muddled condition that prevails in America. The reader of this review may not agree with the proposal of the author of the book but he cannot afford to fail to read this book in its entirety to familiarize himself with the amazing undertaking of the soviet republic.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

Taming the Criminal, by JOHN LEWIS GILLIN. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1931, 318 pages.

The Crime of Punishment, by MARGARET WILSON. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1931, 332 pages.

Here we have two new books, added to the present flood of crime literature, which may rightly be called "adventures in penology" This, indeed, is the subtitle of Dr. Gillin's book and equally applies to that of Mrs Wilson They are not technical, they are not organized for textbook use, they are not even "research" in the usually accepted sense of the term. They are just *excursions* to which the word "delightful," in the nature of the subject, scarcely applies.

Dr Gillin, an internationally known penologist, pursues his major interest while on a trip around the world. He visits prisons, interviews wardens, governors, and ministers of justice, gathers data, and in general skims the cream of what is to be learned in this, his special field, on such an excursion. He starts with Japan and ends with England reporting en route on the Philippines, Ceylon, India, Switzerland, and Belgium. Then, for good measure, he throws in "some Southern prison systems in the United States."

Mrs. Wilson's case is quite different. Her's is an unusual excursion staying at home. She is not a trained penologist. She assures us that, until the "adventure" began, she had not even been normally interested in the subject. The "adventure" began, however, when she "went quite unexpectedly to live in a house on an English prison wall." Her husband was the newly appointed prison governor. Thus the daily round at home in a new environment dedicated to "the punishment of crime," stimulated her to study and express her ideas on "the crime of punishment"

Dr. Gillin's book is exactly what might be expected from the pen of so eminent an authority.

Mrs. Wilson's book is not what might be expected from so casual an observer; it is far better

CLARENCE G DITTMER

Souls in the Making, by JOHN G. MACKENZIE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929, 259 pages.

The supplementary title of this book explains very definitely its contents. There are interesting discussions of starting points of character and personality; the development of the sentiments, and the qualities of character; conflict; the meaning of the unconscious, the resolution of conflicts, pastoral method and technique; and the therapeutic and integrative value of religion. On the whole the volume is one of the best in this field which the reviewer has seen. The treatment is scholarly; the style is clear.

Dr. Mackenzie follows Shand and other eminent British psychologists in making the sentiments the foundations of character.

Four chapters are devoted to discussions of the psychoanalytic character. Just why students of religion seek to find the true psychological interpretations of religious and moral behavior in terms of the psychoanalytic is beyond the comprehension of the reviewer. For many of them the unconscious, of which we know so little, seems to be the source of our mystic experience. Of course there is something in the psychoanalytic method, but the middle-of-the-road psychologist's viewpoint would seem to have much more to commend it to students of religious behavior than the Freudian brand.

Souls in the Making is a book, however, that is full of meat and I can recommend it heartily to pastors, social workers, and teachers.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

That Problem Called the Modern Boy, by JEROLD O'NEIL.
New York: Halston House, Sears Publishing Company, Inc., 1931, 233 pages.

This volume represents a practical attempt to get at the psychology and sociology of the modern boy. There are discussed such interesting topics as the home, youth's cleverness, a plea for the modern boy, attitudes, youth's viewpoints, a bit of "silver lining," parental attitude, a parent visits the head master, modern youth and education, experiences, that thing called leisure, and some remedies.

The table of contents is sufficient to suggest that the book was written by a man who has had first-hand contact with boys and who knows how to handle them in the modern way.

The book should serve as an excellent guide, not only to head masters of private schools, but also to public-school teachers and principals, parents, and workers with boys, whether in camp, school, home, or club. The book would make fine supplementary reading in courses in the psychology of adolescence.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

Higher Education Faces the Future, a symposium on college and university education in the United States of America, edited by PAUL ARTHUR SCHLIPP. New York: Horace Liveright, 1930, 408 pages.

While this tantalizing title proclaims that higher education faces the future, it is not clear after perusal just which way higher education does face. It apparently faces many ways at once dependent upon the varying views of the contributors. The word symposium may account for this, for in its original sense the word meant a drinking party. Any reader returning home from this symposium will experience all the effects of sobering off after a bewildering night out.

Robert Devore Leigh, writing upon "The Newest Experiment in American Education," gives an account of the proposed plans for the new college at Bennington, Vermont. As an educational auctioneer, I risk the statement that it is worth the price of the entire volume. President Hopkins of Dartmouth has a wise, sane discussion of college aims. Norman Frank Coleman, president of Reed College, describes some of the results of eighteen years of bold experimentation at Reed, where probably more stupid traditions have been broken and more fine heresy tried out than has been the case anywhere else in an equal interval. President Lowell of Harvard writing upon "Self-Education at Harvard" describes the innovations going on there. Dorothy Canfield Fisher presents a sociological study under the title "New Leaders Needed," which has food for thought for those interested in a selection system of higher education. Dr. William McDougall proposes a selective system patterned after Oxford and Cambridge for private endowed universities which he thinks ought to be sharply differentiated from State universities as purveyors of a more democratic type of higher education. Other contributors furnish us such prominent names as John Dewey, Sir John Adams, Ray Lyman Wilbur, Hamilton Holt, Alexander Meiklejohn, and William Chandler Bagley.

This book is very uneven in quality. Some of the contributors are as pessimistic and negative as others are hopeful and progressive.

On the whole it is a hard volume to describe. It has plenty of variety but little unity. But then it is a symposium. It contains several essays which no student of higher education could afford not to possess, a few that he could well afford not to possess, with others falling between these extremes. It unwittingly represents democracy in higher education.

J. O. CREAGER

Teaching in College and University—A Survey of the Problems and Literature in Higher Education, by CARTER V. GOOD. Baltimore, Maryland: Warwick and York, 1929, 557 pages.

The rising tide of interest in college and university education has already produced several treatises in these fields. One of the first of these by some auspicious omen is conceived from the point of view of the teaching in these institutions, perhaps because humanity has an instinctively awkward tendency to put its finger on the sore spot. Dr. Good's book, however, is largely devoted to the innocuous road of travel indicated by the subtitle, a survey of the literature of the field. From this point of view it constitutes a useful contribution. It will be found to be a valuable bibliographical volume though its use would have been enhanced if the author had been more selective and less comprehensive in his treatment. In general the criticism may be passed upon present-day bibliographers that their industrious efforts would save the student much time and effort if the references were

classified more carefully. One obvious basis of cleavage would be the differentiation between factual articles and those of mere opinion. The latter have accumulated with such rapidity in this new field that the reader is apt to spend much time separating the grain from a pile of chaff. This present volume deals with the evidences of a new interest in college teaching—the status of colleges, students, and teachers, objectives and standards in higher education and the curriculum, psychology of learning; conduct of the class period; measurement and guidance, reorganization of higher education; improvement of college teaching, research. A special bibliography on method in the various subjects in twelve subject-matter fields is given in the appendix. It is a volume every student of higher education should have accessible.

J. O. CREAGER

The Curriculum for the College of Liberal Arts. Report of the Curriculum Conference held at Rollins College. Winter Park, Florida; Rollins College, 1931, 85 pages.

Dr. John Dewey who was chairman of this conference points out its significance in the following words, "This conference, is, so far as I know, unique in devoting itself to the fundamental principles of college education as distinguished from those both of lower schools and of the university." The personnel of the conference included, among other prominent educators, Henry Turner Bailey, Caswell Ellis, John Palmer Gavitt, Joseph K. Hart, Max McConn, Arthur E. Morgan, James Harvey Robinson, Constance Warren, and Goodwin Watson. The report deals with the following topics: the function of the liberal arts college, the place of the liberal arts college in education; student interest; organization of material or curriculum, teachers and teaching appraisals of achievement.

From the number of reports and revised reports we conclude that there must be a few questions which the conference did not permanently settle. It is impossible in a short review to give any adequate impression of the content of these reports. The entire bulletin is a most interesting and stimulating publication and constitutes, in the writer's opinion, one of the best documents we have on the attempt to draw up the underlying principles of the so-called liberal college. The fact that certain groups at the conference could not entirely agree is no implied criticism. We are probably just at the beginning of a movement which will attempt to do for the college what has already been fairly well accomplished in the establishment of objectives and construction of curricula for elementary and secondary education.

J. O. CREAGER

Principles of Sociology (revised edition), by EDWARD A. Ross. New York: The Century Company, 1930, 592 pages.

The first edition of Professor Ross's *Principles of Sociology* ranks as one of the classic works in American sociology. The new revision is the same work with some reorganization and modifications made in the light of the wider knowledge uncovered in the past ten years.

That Professor Ross's approach to the problem of sociology is through the social process is well known. In his brilliant analysis he described some thirty of the social processes, and in their revision they remain fundamentally unaltered. A few of the individual types of interaction have been dropped from separate consideration and incorporated in other chapters, while conflict receives more detailed attention in its several aspects than in the earlier work.

Notable is the breaking up of the organization of his system into units which makes it easier for the reader and student to see the pattern of his thought. An expanded section on the social population, with the infusion of the author's latest thinking on the problems and effects of population circumstances, forms the introductory basis for the consideration of the nature of society. The social factors of geographic environment, human nature, and culture are briefly considered in the second part and complete the survey of the materials out of which society arises. The genesis of society is laid in the four processes of association, communication, domination, and exploitation. In the next three sections the author considers conflict and adaptation, co-operation and organization, class and caste as the remaining gross forms of the social process. The influence of recent psychological thought is noticeable throughout.

E. ADAMSON HOEBEL

Outlines of Sociology, by J. L. GILLIN and F. W. BLACKMAR. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930, 692 pages.

This book has been in the field for twenty-five years, and has gone through four editions, the 1930 edition being under the authors' title of Gillin and Blackmar rather than Blackmar and Gillin. The text has had a remarkably long and wide use, and is still among the two or three texts which lead the field in number of adoptions. In organization, the new edition is almost the same as the last previous one (1923) though the names of a good many chapters have been changed, and Part VI, on the method of social investigation, omitted. On scanning the table of contents few changes are apparent, but a closer inspection of the content of the chapters shows many sections entirely rewritten, new emphasis made, and account taken of recent developments. Also the statistics in the section on social problems have been revised. In content the book covers a wide scope, being similar in this respect to a number of books which have appeared during its life, and some of which it doubtless influenced. First the nature and import of sociology are considered, followed by an extensive treatment

(two fifths of the book) on social evolution. Social control is considered both from the standpoint of the socializing forces and of social ideals. The last fifth of the book is devoted to social pathology.

The book is well written, and its long life shows that it fills a distinct need.

R. E. BABER

Backgrounds for Sociology, by HANNIBAL G. DUNCAN.
Boston: Marshall Jones Company, 1931, 795 pages.

Sociology has been described by some wag as "the statement of something every one knows in language which no one can understand." In view of the subject matter of many courses, there is justification for this position. It is refreshing to have a textbook written for sociology which leaves no doubt in the reader's mind as to the real scope of the subject. This has been most admirably done by Dr. Duncan in this text, *Backgrounds for Sociology*. Its real merit is that it deals with concrete social phenomena. So often the so-called sociologist escapes from reality and fails to remember that his subject matter is humanity. In this text the student will find his problem definitely outlined and in logical sequence. Also, and admirably so, there is no exotic pet theory which the author is trying to force upon his unsuspecting readers.

Dr. Duncan gets off with a good start in his opening chapter dealing with the nature and development of sociology. The problem of the synthetic influences of social development is clearly stated. From this point he proceeds to tell us how humanity "got that way." After giving a concise statement of the laws of heredity he proceeds to discuss in an admirable manner social problems and their causation.

The final section of this book is called "principles of sociology." This is a clear, concise and unambiguous statement of principles which usually draw their weary length over the pages of a lengthy tome, with not nearly as much profit.

This text can rightly be hailed as a most substantial contribution to literature which is serviceable for classroom usage. It has the virtue of being written in an interesting style and is also devoid of the usual tedium of long dreary passages, so often encountered in a textbook. Furthermore, the book is thoroughly documented with enough statistics to give weight to theories demanding statistical verification. An equally admirable feature is the splendid bibliography appended to each chapter. The author has read, learned, and inwardly digested this field, and his comprehensive inclusion of much of this material, with a keen sense of evaluation, has been the factor most directly responsible for the production of this worth-while contribution. This is a real tribute, as most texts on sociology hardly justify the expenditure of time and money which they entail. Besides time and money Dr. Duncan has expended thought, and in writing a textbook this really has a major rôle.

ALVIN E. BELDEN

A History of the Modern Church from 1500 to the Present Day, by J. W. C. WAND. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1930, x+314 pages.

A good book on the history of Christianity in modern times is urgently needed. Mr. Wand's is the work of a competent and cultivated scholar, and contains many interesting comments and ways of statement. But it does not much excel what we have. Modern church history is taken to include the reformation, and to this period more than a third of the space is given. There remain less than two hundred pages for the treatment of what is usually considered modern history. In these the principal events in the history of the Christian churches are described correctly and sympathetically. But there is little discussion of the relation of Christianity and of the churches to the forces and movements of the world. The book is not planned to exhibit the broad significance of Christianity in modern life. This is the more disappointing because the reader feels that the author is qualified to give an interpretation of this kind.

Evidently Mr. Wand has written for English readers. His outlook is emphatically English and Anglican. More than a third of his pages are occupied with events in England. Puritanism and Methodism are not justly appreciated. So much attention to one country and one church throws the book out of true perspective. The eleven pages given to American Christianity are below the general level. Not much could be done in the space, but obviously Mr. Wand has not in mind even the true outlines of the Christian movement in America. The statement that "an Act for Establishing Religious Freedom in America had been passed in 1785 under President Jefferson" is certainly a howler. There was no president in 1785, and no "Act for Establishing Religious Freedom" was passed in that or any other year. But the book should not be judged by this chapter.

ROBERT HASTINGS NICHOLS

Fifty-five "Bad" Boys, by SAMUEL W. HARTWELL. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1931, xvii+359 pages.

This is an excellent book for those interested in treating problem cases. The author presents a suggestive point of view with reference to the interpretation of problem behavior, and contributes a highly satisfactory statement of the technique involved in the approach to the problem child. His point of view is that the most adequate basis for understanding the child is in determining how he "interprets his experiences and feels about things." Treatment involves the establishment of rapport between psychiatrist and patient. Generally, the more intimately rapport is established with the child, the more probable will be the success of treatment, although occasionally the establishment of intimate rapport may be harmful to the subject. The psychiatrist helps the patient to respond to his experiences in a more satisfying way by redefining the situation for him. The writer frankly admits his failures in treatment wherever they occur.

The writer points out that psychotherapy is an art rather than a science. Consequently he gives little attention to problems of methodology. Little effort seems to have been made to verify his subjective evaluation of causative factors and of outcomes. The cases are not given in as much detail, and do not embrace as wide a realm of the boys' experiences, as one might desire. However, they present highly interesting and instructive accounts of a variety of maladjustments. The writer's emphasis upon the use of the child's own story, his recognition of the child's efforts to play a satisfactory rôle, his clarity in stating the difficulties involved in the cases studied are highly commendable. Such a book should prove of great benefit to teachers and others handling difficult cases.

R. L. WHITLEY

Early Protestant Educators, by FREDERICK EBY. New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1931, xiii+312 pages.

The present volume is one of a series of source books known as the McGraw-Hill Education Classics. It includes, with brief introductions, selections from the educational writings of Luther, Melancthon, Bugenhagen, excerpts from the Hamburg Code of 1529, the Wurttemberg Code of 1559, and the Pomeranian Code of 1563, and selections from Calvin, John Knox, and the Anabaptists.

The educational writings of the protestant reformers fall into three groups: (1) pronouncements upon the nature, necessity, or method of education; (2) school ordinances (*Schulordnungen*), either issued separately or forming parts of general church codes (*Kirchenordnungen*), and (3) manuals, concerned chiefly with religious instruction, used as texts in the schools.

Professor Eby's selection of material has given particular prominence to the first of these classes of sources. From Luther, in addition to reprinting from Painter's *Luther on Education*, the "Letter to the Mayors and Aldermen of all the Cities of Germany in Behalf of Christian Schools" and the "Sermon on the Duty of Sending Children to School," there are included a number of shorter selections from the translations from Karl von Raumer's *Geschichte der Pädagogik*, published by Henry Barnard in his *German Teachers and Educators*, and from other sources. Calvin's views are presented by quotations from his *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, and from shorter tracts, and those of Knox by several short selections. The educational views of the Anabaptists are presented in a quotation from the "Letter of the Brotherly Union" of 1527.

The second group is represented by excerpts from Melancthon's Saxony School Plan of 1528, Bugenhagen's Brunswick Code of 1528 and his Hamburg Code of 1529, and from the Wurttemberg and Pomeranian Codes of 1559 and 1563, respectively. Of similar character are the "By-Laws of the Academy of Geneva," representing the Calvinistic viewpoint, and the *Book of Discipline* of 1560, prepared by John Knox.

and his associates. Of sources of the third class, there are selections from Luther's *Short Catechism* of 1529 and his edition of *Aesop's Fables*, published in 1530, and from Calvin's *Geneva Catechism* of 1536. The work will prove a welcome addition to the literature of the history of education during the Reformation period.

ELBERT VAUGHN WILLS

Education of the Modern Girl, by MABELLE BABCOCK BLAKE, et al. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929, 1930, 219 pages.

Since that part of education which has to do with schools is going through a period of critical evaluation from all serious-minded people who have to do with or are concerned in the growth and development of young people, the contents of this book will be found helpful to parents, teachers, camp leaders, and others who have a part in the bringing to a well-integrated maturity the youth of today. The education of the modern girl is discussed by eight women, well-known in their fields, who are concerned with the private school for girls and its part in the general educational plan. With an introduction by William Allan Neilson, president of Smith College, the writers discuss the problem from the various standpoints of home influence, academic influence, the spirit of the school and religion, whether or not college is the next step for all girls, the future of the private school, the influence of summer camps, and a final chapter entitled *Partners All*.

Particular emphasis is placed upon a sympathetic and intelligent understanding of the girl as an individual and the need for a definite and well-organized attempt to develop the potentialities of each girl. The need for close cooperation between home and school is stressed as one of the first steps towards that integration. All parents would do well to read the chapter entitled *College or Not*, with the definite point in mind of considering their daughter's happiness and welfare.

This book was preceded by a similar book written by the head masters of six distinguished schools for boys, entitled *The Education of the Modern Boy*.

BONNIE E. MELLINGER

Problems in Teacher Training, Volume V, Proceedings of the 1930 Spring Conference of the Eastern States Association of Professional Schools for Teachers, by AMBROSE L. SUHRLE. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1930, 166 pages.

This conference report deals with seven main topics: (1) the in-service education of teachers, (2) supervision in relation to the professional improvement of teachers, (3) education for the teachers of tomorrow, (4) systematic courses for teachers in service, (5) pioneer and contemporary leadership in teacher education, (6) recruiting promising students for the teaching profession, (7) student cooperation with the administration of teacher education.

Reports on in-service education deals with (a) the variety of ways school administration and supervision may stimulate professional growth in the teaching staff, (b) summer session study, (c) leaves of absence for study or travel, (d) teachers' institute or conference programs, and (e) exchange of teachers between school systems.

The discussion of supervision in relation to the professional improvement of teachers includes statements on the following points. (a) what teachers have a right to expect from supervisory help, (b) teacher participation in curriculum revision, (c) methods of teacher rating, and (d) the measurement of teaching results.

A section of the yearbook dealing with systematic course study as a means of in-service education reports the following subjects (a) importance of extension courses, (b) their value in the solution of local problems, (c) library facilities in extension work, (d) maintenance of scholastic standards, and (e) factors influencing enrollment in extension classes.

The radio program on education of teachers for tomorrow included these subjects: (a) education of teachers today determines the education of children tomorrow, (b) what may be expected of prospective teachers today, (c) enrichment of social experiences for prospective teachers, (d) extension of their civic interests, (e) stimulation of initiative and acceptance of responsibility, and (f) creation of a sustained eagerness for learning.

NED H. DEARBORN

Studying the Major Subjects, by CLAUDE C. CRAWFORD.
Los Angeles: Claude C. Crawford, 1930, 384 pages.

This book was written as a text for high-school seniors or college freshmen who are pursuing courses in "how to study." It has many suggestions for eliminating difficulties in mastering the subject matter in the fields of literature, composition, foreign languages, mathematics, physics and chemistry, biology, history, the social studies, practical arts, physical education and health, and the fine arts.

If one grants a place in the high school or college to the course, how to study, there can be no question but that Dr. Crawford has here a splendid text. This book should prove of value to *beginning* teachers who have not had professional training—the many practical suggestions may be passed on to their pupils. Pupils who are doing independent study or who are pursuing correspondence courses undoubtedly could use the book to good advantage.

When high schools and colleges cease to consider education as lesson learning they will begin to teach students how to study. Students will learn how to study by *studying* under the leadership of trained and capable teachers. Students who are able to apply the generalizations of *Studying the Major Subjects* already know how to study. Only with the aid of superior teachers are the others likely to learn the technique. There may be a place for general courses in how to study but these courses must never be accepted as a substitute for good teaching.

FORREST E. LONG

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Dr. Julian Archer who has been associated with the department of educational sociology of New York University as an instructor during the past three years completed his graduate study and is now a member of the staff of the State Teachers College at Macomb, Illinois.

Mr. Paul Cressy of the department of sociology of Evansville College, Evansville, Indiana, and Mr. C. G. Swanson of Greeley State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, have joined the staff of New York University as part-time instructors and will continue their study for the doctorate in the department of educational sociology.

Dr. Earle U. Rugg, head of the department of education of the State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, gave courses in the School of Education of New York University during the summer session.

Dr. Daniel Kulp, II, of the department of educational sociology of Teachers College, Columbia University, is spending his sabbatical leave in completing his study of community life in China. Dr. Kulp previously spent some time in China in a similar study.

Mr. Erwin S. Selle of the department of sociology of the State Teachers College at Winona, Minnesota, completed his doctorate in Teachers College, Columbia University, during the past summer session.

Dr. Arthur Drake of the staff of Adelphi College, Garden City, New York, and his wife, Professor Margaret Drake of Maxwell Training School, New York City, are on leave of absence from their present positions during the current year. They are now in Hilo, Territory of Hawaii, where they have organized a new junior college.

The annual meeting of the American Sociological Society will be held in Washington during the Christmas holiday. The following program has been arranged for the section on educational sociology:

First Meeting

"The Work of the Schools in Connection with Community Chest Campaigns"

Dr. A. J. Todd, professor of sociology, Northwestern University
Discussion led by Otto W. Davis, secretary, Council of Social Agencies, Cincinnati

Second Meeting

"The Case Study as a Method of Research—with special application to the program of the Boys' Club Study, Department of Educational Sociology, New York University"

Dr. Robert Whitley, New York University

Discussion led by Professor Read Bain, Miami University

Dr. John M. Brewer, Harvard University, chairman

Dr. Benjamin Floyd Stalcup, New York University, secretary

Conference on the Teaching of the Social Sciences

On April 3 and 4 a conference on the teaching of undergraduate courses in the social sciences was held at Northwestern University. One hundred and twenty-seven instructors in economics, history, phil-

osophy, political science, psychology, sociology, and anthropology were in attendance, representing fifty-three colleges in the Middle West.

There were two general sessions, the first devoted to a consideration of freshmen courses in the social sciences, with papers by Dean Aleida J. Pieters of Milwaukee-Downer College and Professor Raymond C. Miller of the College of the City of Detroit, the second dealing with the relation between teaching and research in the undergraduate college, with papers by Professor Mandell M. Bober of Lawrence College, Professor Sterling T. Williams of Lake Forest College, and Dr Laura F Ullrich of Northwestern University.

On the afternoon of April 3, the conference met in five round tables. In the section on sociology and anthropology, the topic for discussion was "For Purposes of College Instruction—What is Sociology?" Papers were presented by Professor A H Woodworth (Hanover College), Professor Carl Strow (Knox College), Professor L E Garwood (Coe College), Professor W B Bodenhafer (Washington University), Professor E. B Harper (Kalamazoo College), Professor Louis A Boettger (Lawrence College)

International Institute of Sociology

The twenty-five addresses at the Congress of the International Institute of Sociology, held at Geneva, October 1930, on the general theme "The Sociology of War and Peace," will be published as Volume XVI of the *Annals of the International Institute of Sociology*. For subscription to this volume, address M Giard, editor, 16 rue Soufflot, Paris.

The next Congress of the Institute will be held at Geneva in 1933 and will have for its general theme: (1) the sociological survey; (2) the human habitat. Correspondence regarding this meeting should be addressed to the permanent secretary of the Institute, 6 Cours de Rive, Geneva.

Health Conference

A two-day conference was held under the auspices of the Child Study Association of America, at the Pennsylvania Hotel, in New York City, on October 19 and 20. The speakers included Mr. Eduard C. Lindeman, chairman, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Dr. Rachael Stutsman, Dr. Caroline B Zachry, Mr. Harry M Schulman, Dr. Ruth Brickner, Mr. Robert Lynd, Mrs. Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg, and Dr. William A. Neilson.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. Robert P. Carroll is at present associate professor and director of educational psychology at Teachers College, Syracuse University. He received his A.B. from Emory and Henry College, 1914; his A.M. from Teachers College, Columbia University, 1920; Ph.D., Teachers College, 1927. Dr. Carroll is a member of various associations and has made numerous contributions in the field of education, among which are, *A Drill Book in Methods of Computation in Educational Measurement*, *Fundamentals in the Technique of Educational Measurement*, and *An Experimental Study of Comprehension in Reading with Special Reference to Directions*.

Dr. Philip A. Cowen received his Sc.B. in 1923 from University of Illinois, A.M., 1925, Teachers College, Columbia University, Ph.D. in 1929 from New York University. Professor Cowen has taught in the public schools of Cambridge, Ohio, Illinois State Normal University, Dartmouth College, and New York University. At present he is research associate of Educational Research Division, State Education Department, Albany, New York.

Professor George F. Dunkelberger received his A.B. degree from Susquehanna University, his A.M. from the University of Pittsburgh, and his Ph.D. from New York University. Dr. Dunkelberger has taught in the public school and Pennsylvania Normal School. From 1921-1925, Dr. Dunkelberger was dean of college and professor of education at Susquehanna University.

Miss Eloise R. Griffith received her education in Columbia University and New York University. During her social work she has been associated with War Camp Community Service, Boston, during the war, Queen's County Chapter; American Red Cross, Executive Secretary, Nutley Social Service Bureau, Nutley, New Jersey; Children's Case Worker, Children's Welfare Committee, Montclair, New Jersey.

Miss Sadie Oliver graduated from Sam Houston Teachers College, Texas, and received her bachelor's degree from Texas State College for Women. Miss Oliver has had a number of years' experience as teacher of home economics in San Antonio junior and senior high schools and is at present at the Main Avenue High School, San Antonio, Texas.

Mr. Eldon K. Rumberger secured his Sc.B. and Sc.M. degrees from Pennsylvania State College. At the present time he is instructor in education at Susquehanna University.

Dr. Robert L. Whitley received his A.B. degree from the East Texas State Teachers College in 1925; his A.M. degree from the University of Texas in 1928, and his Ph.D. degree from New York University in 1931. Dr. Whitley is at present instructor in the department of sociology of the School of Education of New York University. He is also research director of the study of homeless men being conducted by the Welfare Council.

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EDITORIAL

Perhaps no topic has involved more discussion than that of health and health education in the past decade. The interest in health has two underlying bases; namely, the development of scientific knowledge on the one hand and the growing complexity of life which requires new adjustments in order to meet the health needs of the individual and the community on the other hand.

We are in the midst of a strange situation in which there has been marked progress in the development of community health, in the reduction of mortality, and in extending the average length of life and yet the individual has never solved less successfully the problem of living than in the complex civilization of the present. The average length of life has been extended twenty-five years in the past three quarters of a century and yet there has been a decline in the actual length of life—one year or more in the same period. The reason for this strange situation is the effective accomplishment of communities in the control of morbidity which arises from communicable diseases and factors which the community itself could control. We have at present reached the peak of accomplishment in those communities where an adequate community health program has been put into operation. This does not mean that we have solved the problem of community health

The wide difference in the nature and amount of mortality in the various sanitary districts in New York indicates much to be accomplished in community control of disease. However, we cannot hope for marked progress in the further development of community living. The problem now is one of dealing with individual health. This is primarily the task of education. Fortunately, communities have become quite sensitive to the need of dealing with education as a problem of the individual. But, there is still evidence of an inadequate program. The fact that schools in such cities as New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia outline a program of health instruction applicable to the whole city, not taking into account the diversity of the sections of the city, indicates the weakness of our plans of instruction.

The hope of this issue of the JOURNAL is to present some material that will help in the direction of solving this difficult and immediately pressing task of the health education of the individual.

THE RELATION OF PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH

IAGO GALDSTON

Here is a thesis to delight the varied host of metaphysicians! For ever since man first realized that there was both soul and body, matter and spirit, *mens* and *corpus*, the relationship of the two and the effects of the one upon the other have provoked him to endless speculation and to no little research.

A review of the history of this thesis would lead us back to the earliest days of human civilization, to an age long before the fertile banks of the Nile were first settled by the builders of the pyramids, to countless centuries before Thales propounded his cosmic philosophy

Throughout the centuries man has wrestled with the problem of the relation of the mental to the physical. Religious, philosophical, sociologic, and educational schools of thought have sponsored a wide variety of proffered solutions. Between them there have arisen violent and even bloody controversies. The increasing body of science has led to the refinement of the larger thesis and to its segmentation into numerous special considerations, but it remains to this day as provoking a theme as it ever was

No previous age, however, has been as well equipped in knowledge as is our own, and in consequence no "seekers after wisdom" have been as fortunately armed as are our contemporaries. The pursuit of our thesis needs no longer rest on the fine exercise of pure dialectics. The growth of the sciences of neuro-anatomy, of general and neural physiology, of clinical and organic pathology, of psychiatry, as well as the phenomenal achievements of experimental psychology, have made available to the student of today a body of knowledge which must lift the plane of discussion above that of casuistry. We have before us the protocols

of numerous studies. We must base our consideration and can found our conclusions upon these.

Mens sana in corpore sano is the Latin paraphrase of a conviction deeply rooted in Greek thought. Time and experience have not controverted its essential truth. But certain of the loose deductions drawn therefrom, perhaps in accordance with the rules of syllogistic thinking but certainly in opposition to science, have been shown to be worthless.

The fault has largely been in the lack of definiteness in the meaning of health, particularly of mental health. Is the high-grade ament, or moron, healthy? Constitutionally, many among them would pass muster. The functions of their organic systems, those, for example, of respiration, circulation, digestion, etc., come up to normal. Cerebrally, however, they are constitutionally defective, and yet they may be making full use of their limited endowment. Are such high-grade aments well or sick? Could one hope to improve their intellectual status by improving their physical health?

Evidently, health must be understood to mean optimal function within the limits of organic endowment. Otherwise confusion results.

The present consideration is largely confined to those of sound organic constitution, including the nervous system. Neither the idiot, imbecile, moron, nor feeble-minded, nor yet the demented, is included. The consideration of the relation of physical and mental health is here made with the so-called organically normal person as the subject of our study. Our concern is with their functional interplay.

The effects of toxic substances upon the functions of the nervous system, including the higher centers, have been too patent to escape the notice of even the earliest physicians. Hippocrates, the father of medicine, recognized and described mental disorders such as delirium, delusions, depression, and anxiety and attributed them immediately to the conditions of the brain and ultimately to substances or con-

ditions which caused the brain to be too hot or too cold, too moist or too dry. He noticed, too, the mental aberrations incidental to high fevers.

The observations of Hippocrates have since been much elaborated and amplified and we are today cognizant of a vast variety of drugs, poisons, and disease toxins that can cause nervous and mental disorders.

Less patent have been the effects upon the nervous system of chronic infections and of the so-called focal infections. In recent years, much study has been devoted to this subject, and perhaps the foremost exponent of the far-reaching effects of diseases elsewhere in the body upon the functions of the nervous system is Dr. Henry A. Cotton of Princeton University.¹ His immensely interesting volume *The Defective, Delinquent, and Insane* is devoted to an exposition of the effects of focal infections upon the nervous system. His basic idea is stated as follows:

It should be said that the primary lesion which determines the abnormal mental state is most frequently not to be found in the brain itself. The brain cells are constantly influenced by abnormal conditions in other parts of the body through the circulation. Anatomical lesions of other organs of the body are known to change the metabolism contaminating the blood with abnormal products, which in turn disturb the chemical exchanges and nutrition of the cells of the brain. Thus frequently there is direct action on the cerebral elements by the morbid agents carried through the circulation. The result may be coarse and extensive lesions such as result from a large hemorrhage, or fine, diffuse, and frequently invisible lesions. Either one of these may be the result of the action of various toxins.

Dr. Cotton's viewpoint is to an appreciable degree in agreement with the findings and opinions of other scientists who have made parallel or related studies. Drs. John William Draper and Redford K. Johnson² studied the relation of enteric disease to personality changes in children and adolescents and made a preliminary report to the effect "We have found that children or adolescents who

¹Henry A. Cotton, *The Defective, Delinquent, and Insane* (Princeton, N. J. Princeton University Press, 1922), 201 p.

²John William Draper and Redford K. Johnson, "Personality Changes in Children and Adolescents," *American Journal of Surgery*, VII (1929), pp. 568-572.

begin to show abnormal alterations in personality are always physically sick. Occasionally, the removal of obvious focal infections of the throat and nose corrects the difficulty. In the remainder a study of the alimentary canal may furnish enlightening and absorbing data, because of the gastrointestinal symptoms which are frequently present."

Drs. Margaret Cobb Rogers³ and Edward B. Angell⁴ each separately studied the effects of the removal of adenoids and tonsils on general intelligence and arrived at the conclusion that while these surgical procedures do not influence intelligence as measured by the common tests, they do improve performance in school work, etc

The corroboration of the conviction that organic disease elsewhere in the body may injure the nervous system and adversely affect its functions is widespread. To those mentioned above may be added the diseases of the endocrine system. These, too, are known to exercise a profound influence over the functions of the nervous system.

There are other forms of physical disability which influence mental health in addition to those caused by toxic substances. Poor nutrition, bad personal hygiene, and excessive fatigue though causing no appreciable gross pathology engender poor physical and poor mental health. This phase of the problem has been competently developed by Drs. Max and Grete Seham⁵ in *The Tired Child*

The effects of manifest disease upon the nervous system are too patent and appealing to require much emphasis. The more subtle effects of malnutrition, poor posture, fatigue, and similar conditions upon mental health are not so readily appreciated. It is, however, this latter group of conditions that is most readily amenable to control and which falls so extensively within the province of the educators.

³Margaret Cobb Rogers, "Adenoids and Diseased Tonsils—Their Effect on General Intelligence," *Archives of Psychology*, VII, 5 (1922)

⁴Edward B. Angell, "Effect of Removal of Adenoids and Tonsils on the Mental Development of the Child," *Archives of Neurology and Psychiatry*, XIII (1925), pp 388-390

⁵Max and Grete Seham, *The Tired Child* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1926), 342 p

To appreciate fully the import of the subject we must refer to certain fundamentals. Thus, the nervous system, through which human behavior is mediated, is part of a highly complicated machine, the human body. The nervous system shares in the nature of the machine by being a transformer of energy. Its manifold functions, apart from their significant meaning to the economy of the body, have energy equivalents, indicating the reception and transmission of energy. The neuron does not create nervous energy any more than the muscle cell creates muscle energy. It receives energy in the form of certain chemical substances ultimately derived from food. This energy the neuron transforms, stores, and utilizes in the processes of its function.

Between the ingestion of food and the ultimate arrival at the location of the neuron of the chemical substances which constitute the immediate source of its energy, there take place many intricate physiologic processes. The successful achievement of these physiologic processes requires the integrated actions of all other systems of the body, including excretion.

C. Judson Herrick^o in his most illuminating book, *The Thinking Machine*, summarizes these basic ideas under the heading "How the Living Machinery Works" as follows:

All the raw materials for making a living must come from outside of us, for we have never seen a human being or any other living thing make either its own body or any kind of behavior out of nothing. Both the material and the energy are assimilated from outside sources, just as they are when a mechanic builds and operates a steam engine.

The chief sources are, of course, the food eaten and the air breathed. The internal work of the body consists in finding this precious stuff, transporting it to the parts of the body where it is needed, and then working it over so as to supply this need. In a human body this is a manufacturing enterprise of considerable magnitude, far more diversified and complicated than all the activities of the Union Stock Yards of Chicago.

The transport of materials within the body is done mainly by the blood stream, whose chief function is the interchange of

^o Judson Herrick, *The Thinking Machine* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929), 386 p.

commodities of various sorts from one part of the body to another. In addition to this there are lines of transmission of energy, chiefly the nerves, and these are of special interest in this inquiry. These arrangements are in some respects similar to those of a great railway system, whose roadbeds for transportation of passengers and goods are paralleled by lines of electric transmission for the control of the traffic and also for the regulation of the warehouses and factories where the goods are worked up for delivery to the consumer

But the nerves are not the only transmitters of energy. All protoplasm is irritable; that is, it will release a certain amount of energy when the proper trigger is pulled, or when it is adequately stimulated. This is done by the consumption of some of the living substance, and in most cases it is a process of oxidation comparable with the way the energy of an automobile is derived from the burning of more fuel from the gas tank when the driver "steps on the gas"

We have agreed to understand health as meaning optimal function within the limits of organic endowment. An adequate energy source is vital to optimal function. Any interference in the energy-transforming functions of the body as a whole, e.g., prolonged starvation, or fault in the metabolic process of the body, e.g., diabetes, or more local interference in the blood circulation of the brain as in the case of cerebral arteriosclerosis, must of necessity affect the functions of the nervous system, and hence, too, the mental health of the individual.

From the above illustrations it should be easy to see the like influences of malnutrition. Enlarged tonsils and adenoids, interfering as they do with respiration, also impede optimal function. Fatigue exercises its effects in devious ways, ultimately rendering inefficient the functioning of the diverse cells and tissues of the body.

These impediments may contribute to the development of behavior difficulties or may dull the total nervous and mental functions of the child. The case histories of thousands of children treated in many behavior clinics throughout the country attest to these facts. Dr. Thom¹ in the preface to his book, *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, states correctly:

¹Douglas A. Thom, *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1927), 349 p.

That we have concentrated our attention and efforts upon a better understanding of the mental side of the child's life should not lead to the assumption that we have lost sight, even for the moment, of the vital importance of sound bodily health nor that we have overlooked the relationship between the physical well-being of the child and his conduct. In every case, and under all conditions, the child's physical health should be carefully investigated under medical supervision and every attempt made to correct any defects that are found.

It is necessary, however, to keep in mind that the physical, intellectual and emotional aspects of the child's life never operate independently of one another for a very long period of time. They are mutually dependent upon each other if the child is to operate as a well-regulated whole.

In recent years, due principally to the works of the schools of Freud, Jung, and Adler, the psychogenic factors in abnormal behavior have come so prominently to the fore that the purely physical factors have been largely overshadowed. It is a vain and profitless task to attempt the evaluation of the relative causation values of the psychic and the physical in begetting nervous and mental disorders. They are both potent forces; they usually coexist, and their relative effects differ in each instance. We are, however, prone, because of the tendency of the day, to think first of an inferiority or an Oedipus complex as the cause of a mental or behavior difficulty. The simpler and usually contributing physical difficulty is either overlooked or relegated to a very subordinate place in the diagnosis and treatment. The simple energy factor in all functions of the nervous system is neglected. To use a crude simile, we look for trouble in the ignition system when in reality the gas tank is empty. Sherrington well cautions: "One of the most helpful of the assumptions we can use in dealing with the problems of the nervous system is that which regards the nervous system as more or less a reservoir of energy to be discharged." Janet⁸ attributes a large share of neurotic disorders to insufficient reserves of mental energy. Spearman⁹ bases his very learned and provoking work, *The Abilities of Man*, on the hypothesis that there exists within

⁸Pierre Janet, *Les Medications Psychologiques* (Paris: Alcan, 1919), 360 p.

⁹C. Spearman, *The Abilities of Man* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927), 415 p.

the nervous system a definable quality of mental energy designated by him under the mathematical symbol "g."

Proof of the relation and effects of anatomic and physiologic integrity or disease upon mental function is available to an extent which should dispel all questions.

In no part of this consideration has it been maintained that the total potential mental capacity can be increased by the correction of physical disabilities. On the contrary, it has been found that the I. Q. is little if at all influenced by the removal of diseased tonsils, the improvement of nutrition, etc. Performance, function, does improve under medical or surgical treatment but not total potential capacity. The converse is equally true; adverse environmental or physiologic conditions increase the fatigability of the brain but do not decrease its ability.

We have devoted most of our space to the consideration of the effects of physical health upon mental health. The relationship, however, is reversible. The effects of mental states upon body function have been subjected to extensive study. Pavlov, Cannon, Herrick, and a host of other scientists have gathered a vast amount of experimental evidence to show the various effects of mental and emotional states upon physiology. There are numerous clinical conditions, from hysteria masking as any one of scores of physical disabilities to nervous indigestion, which are known to be due to and are treated as of nervous origin. This phase of the relationship of physical and mental health is better understood and better appreciated. Most of the problems arising in this realm come under the care of the physician and are less subject to the influences of the educator.

ACCIDENTS AND SAFETY EDUCATION

EARL E. MUNTZ

No account of urban health could be complete without a consideration of the growing list of disablements and casualties resulting from accidents of various sorts and from occupational diseases. In 1930, accidents took the lives of approximately 99,000 persons in the United States, much the larger proportion occurring in urban communities. The death rate from all accidents decreased from 85.5 per 100,000 population in 1913 to 68.7 in 1921, but since 1921 has shown a fairly steady increase. Motor vehicle accidents account almost entirely for the increase in casualties, other accidents showing a downward tendency in almost every instance as may be seen in the following compilation arranged from the United States Census Bureau data.¹

<i>Year</i>	<i>Incidence of all accidents per 100,000 population</i>	<i>Automobile accidents</i>	<i>Other accidents</i>
1913	85.5	3.9	81.6
1915	76.6	5.9	70.7
1917	88.2	9.0	79.2
1919	72.0	9.4	62.6
1921	68.4	11.4	57.0
1923	75.8	14.7	61.1
1925	78.5	17.1	61.4
1927	78.6	19.6	59.0
1928	79.4	20.8	58.6
1929	80.9	23.3	57.6
1930*	80.4	24.8	55.6

*Estimated

Accidents cause about 6 per cent of all the deaths occurring in the United States, ranking as the seventh most important cause of death. Among young children, from one to four years of age, accidents are the second most important cause of death, but in the next age groups, from five to nine and from ten to fourteen, accidents assume first

¹Accident Facts, 1930. *Ibid.*, 1931, The National Safety Council, pp. 15-17

place. In the age group from fifteen to nineteen accidents as a cause of death are exceeded only by tuberculosis which has a death rate some 30 per cent higher. It is, however, encouraging to note that accidents to children are actually declining in recent years, but unfortunately the same period has witnessed an increase in the rate of accidents to adults.

The automobile accounts in large measure for the great increase in fatal and nonfatal accidents during the last fifteen years. In 1928, there were 24,932 deaths in motor vehicle accidents; in 1929, 29,531; while in 1930, the figure had increased to 31,273. Although the accident death rate from this cause has been steadily increasing relative to the population, the rate per 100,000 cars showed a considerable decline from 1924 to 1928. Since the latter date the rate has been rapidly rising. Thus an increase of .08 of 1 per cent in motor vehicles for 1930 as against 1929 was accompanied by an increase of 3.3 per cent in automobile fatalities for the same period.² A complete record of nonfatal automobile accident injuries is not available, but the National Safety Council estimates from such data as is available that there are about 1,000,000 such injuries annually. The National Conference on Street and Highway Safety in 1924 placed the cost of motor vehicle accidents at \$600,000,000, and allowing for a 50 per cent increase in motor vehicle fatalities since that time \$850,000,000 may be taken as a very conservative estimate for 1929. The death rates from automobile accidents in rural districts have shown a more rapid increase during the last twelve years than those in the large cities, and since 1925 the ratio of increase has been less for the larger cities having a population of 100,000 or more than for the smaller cities and for the country at large. This is no doubt a result of more stringent traffic control in the larger urban centers.

The relative importance of the various types of automobile accidents may be seen at a glance from the following

²*New York Herald-Tribune*, August 23, 1931 Quoting report of American Motorists' Association

table of nonfatal motor vehicle injuries, which, although not complete, may be taken as fairly representative.

NONFATAL MOTOR VEHICLE INJURIES BY AGE OF VICTIM AND TYPE OF ACCIDENT, 1929

(From reports to National Safety Council by certain police departments and motor vehicle bureaus)

Type of Accident	All Ages	0-4	5-14	15-54	55 and over
Motor vehicle with pedestrian	102,726	7,441	33,410	47,980	13,895
Motor vehicle with motor vehicle	106,350	3,224	8,200	87,677	7,349
Motor vehicle with railroad train	1,465	24	161	1,188	92
Motor vehicle with electric car	6,073	108	387	5,199	379
Motor vehicle with bicycle	4,710	37	2,364	2,212	97
Motor vehicle with horse-drawn vehicle	2,117	17	129	1,658	313
Motor vehicle with animal	80	0	11	65	4
Motor vehicle with fixed object	11,028	174	605	9,607	642
Noncollision operating accident	8,743	221	638	7,259	625
Nonoperating accident	210	3	11	188	8
Total	243,502	11,249	45,916	162,933	23,404

It is a surprising fact that reported fatal home accidents for the past two years have just about matched the total of industrial fatalities. For the year 1929, the National Safety Council estimates not less than 23,000 home accidents which resulted in death.⁴ The importance of home accidents varies considerably from place to place and at different seasons of the year. Thus in Providence, Rhode Island, home accidents have caused almost one half of all accidental deaths over a considerable period of time, and in Birmingham, Alabama, home accidents accounted for 368 deaths as against 286 from motor vehicle accidents over a six-year period. The greatest frequency of home accidents occurs during the winter months because the exposure is greater—people stay at home more and remain indoors, thus increasing the danger from burns and asphyxiation.

There are four principal types of home accidents—falls; burns, scalds, and explosions; asphyxiation and suffocation; and poisons. Of these, falls account for about 40 per cent of all accidental deaths, and do not show any marked seasonal trend. Next in importance come burns, scalds, and explosions, which show a decided seasonal trend, the greatest frequency being in the cold winter months. More than

⁴Accident Facts, 1930, The National Safety Council, p. 34

⁵Subsequent data have caused the National Safety Council to increase the above estimate to about 30,000, which figure has likewise been accepted for 1930, thus representing a slight decline relative to the population for 1930 compared with 1929. *Ibid.*, 1931, p. 47

25 per cent of all accidental deaths of children under five years of age are caused by burns. Asphyxiation and suffocation rank as the third most important cause of accidental home deaths, also showing a strong seasonal incidence in favor of winter months. Poisons constitute the fourth leading cause of home deaths. Medicines, insecticides, cleaning fluids, and other poisonous materials left within reach of children play a leading rôle in child deaths by poison. About 40 per cent of all deaths by poisoning are of children under 15 years of age. It is estimated that there are about 150 to 200 nonfatal accidents in the home to every fatality. On this basis, home disability accidents probably range from 3,500,000 to 4,000,000 per year.⁵

In the category of public accidents we may include all accidents not resulting from motor vehicle mishaps, industrial occupation, or occurring at home. Approximately 20,000 persons are killed annually in accidents that occur in public places and do not involve a motor vehicle, while injuries number about 2,500,000. The most important types of public accidents are drowning, railroad, and street-car or interurban accidents, which together embrace about 54 per cent of the fatalities in this group. Drownings, as might be expected, show their greatest frequency in the summer. Over one third of the deaths by drowning occurred in the age group from 10 to 24 and 56.3 per cent were of persons under 25 years of age. Firearm accidents also show a preponderance in the early age groups and are most frequent in the winter months. During the last decade fatalities in railroad accidents have ranged between 6,000 and 7,000 annually. Grade-crossing fatalities lead all others, followed by those of trespassers, employees, and passengers. Aviation accidents have naturally shown an increase during the last ten years as a result of the great interest in flying, but the number of miles flown per accident shows a considerable increase.⁶

⁵Accident Facts, 1930, pp. 52-55.

Public Safety, IV, 1 (January, 1930), pp. 10-11.

⁶Accident Facts, 1930, pp. 42-51, *Ibid.*, 1931, pp. 39-46.

As generally happens when society first becomes conscious of a serious problem, legislation is resorted to as a cure-all. Such is the case with reference to many of the causes of modern accidents. True enough, legislation is a necessary and a valuable ally in prevention work, but there are serious limitations arising from the fact that we cannot legislate knowledge into the human mind and eliminate ignorance by simple fiat. That must be the work of education in accident prevention, the importance of which we shall note subsequently.

Traffic accidents have long held a prominent place, even in the days of the horse-drawn vehicle. It is, therefore, surprising to note such an important police function as traffic regulation should so recently have been developed in American municipalities. It was not until 1903, when the automobile had become fairly common, that New York City drafted its first police regulations for the control of street traffic, and this was possible only after years of educational campaigning for systematic traffic control. So successful were these early "rules for driving" that they were widely copied with modifications here and there by municipalities all over the United States and in Europe. The modifications, however, soon resulted in a most heterogeneous mass of traffic regulations, peculiarly local in scope and application, and so diverse at times that diametrically opposite traffic regulations existed in neighboring communities. Thus legislation, which aimed largely at the mitigation of traffic accidents, frequently became a causative rather than a preventive factor, for the motorist, accustomed to the regulations of one community, could not help but transgress the law in others, and in so doing frequently became the unwitting cause of serious accidents. As we all know, this bewildering state of affairs with reference to traffic regulations is still common. Fortunately, however, there is a growing tendency in recent years to establish uniform traffic ordinances. This has been occasioned by greater coöperation

between communities, the educational work of various governmental and private agencies in proposing uniform traffic acts, and, finally, by the passage in a number of States of uniform traffic laws, the application of which embraces the entire State.

It would be well at this point to consider certain additional factors necessary for the prevention of motor vehicle accidents. Traffic rules and regulations do not control the conduct of the driver, nor determine his fitness to drive. For that reason it is essential that every qualified driver be licensed by the State. To show his fitness the prospective operator is required to furnish proof of his physical qualifications, his mental capacity, knowledge of the automobile, and to demonstrate his ability to operate it. Many States give the owner of a car, *ipso facto*, the right to operate it, but the growing tendency is to require proof of fitness to drive in every case. Examinations of this sort do not, however, reveal the licensee's character, his tendency towards recklessness, his failing for intoxicants, and disregard for the rights of others. Such predispositions can only be curbed by the State reserving the right—and exercising the right—to revoke permanently or temporarily the licenses of those who demonstrate that they are unsafe drivers. Compulsory periodic inspections of all licensed automobiles offer much in the way of reducing accidents caused by defective brakes, steering apparatus, headlights, and other equipment. It is the consensus of opinion that no licenses should be granted for old cars which no longer can be kept in a mechanically safe condition.⁷ To weed out the reckless and the financially irresponsible driver a movement has been set on foot in many jurisdictions to compel every owner or operator of a motor vehicle to post a bond or carry automobile casualty insurance to assure the public of his financial responsibility. Sometimes such insurance is only required after the motorist has been involved in an accident. Intelligent highway engineering is another

⁷Cf. *Ways and Means to Traffic Safety*, Recommendations of the National Conference on Street and Highway Safety, May, 1930.

important and necessary factor in accident prevention. Similarly, protected railway grade crossings, or better still the elimination of grade crossings, will reduce a large percentage of accidents and fatalities.

Legislation as a means of curbing home accidents offers at best but little promise. The activities of people in their own homes are less controlled than under almost any other circumstances, consequently legal checks will scarcely prove of much value. Nevertheless, there are many laws which indirectly help to reduce home accidents. Such, for instance, are regulations embraced in housing laws, which provide for fire escapes, fireproof construction, safeguarding open stairways, and other hazards particularly common to the tenement house type. Indirectly any legislation prohibiting the ownership or use of firearms affords potential home protection, for it is in the home that accidental shootings are most apt to occur, especially when the weapon falls into the ever curious hands of children. Similarly, the modern trend towards a safe and sane Fourth of July, as exemplified in the increasing number of municipal ordinances prohibiting the sale of fireworks, is bearing fruit in a very considerable reduction of accidents from this cause. From the above examples it is clear that the sphere of legislation is necessarily confined to providing safe conditions, as far as is practicable. Accidental falls, burns, scalds, and other home accidents too numerous to mention cannot be reduced by legislative fiat.

Public accidents, like home accidents, can be controlled by law only to the extent that it is possible to provide safety devices, safety rules, and safe conditions in public places, on street cars, railroad trains, elevators, and the like. Legal restrictions regarding bathing at public beaches, the setting off of safety zones, and the provision of life guards have reduced the number of drownings—but only at public resorts where local ordinances are applicable.

Bearing in mind, then, the inadequacies of law as a means of preventing accidents, let us inquire into the part

which education plays, or may be expected to play, in the near future. The adult population cannot readily be reached by such direct agencies as the public schools. The school child is the involuntary recipient of safety education where it appears as part of the curriculum, but the adult may or may not interest himself in such matters where legal compulsion is lacking. Thus it is necessary that the public interest be aroused in devious ways as to methods of accident prevention. Many examples might be cited. For example, with reference to traffic accidents, numerous communities are finding it profitable to place posters with terse comments, or practical advice, along the highways or city streets. A custom, which has found favor in some communities, is to erect wooden crosses, one for each fatality, at the roadside wherever a fatal accident has occurred, or, in the cities, to mark the spot by painting white crosses on the roadway. It is possible that these mute warnings have more effect on the would-be reckless driver than all other forms of caution. Various public transportation companies have long waged campaigns against careless pedestrians or automobile drivers through the liberal use of posters and signs in their passenger cars, trolleys, and busses. Newspapers and such special agencies as the National Safety Council, the American Motorists' Association, life and casualty insurance companies, through giving much space and attention to safety information and accident prevention in general, must not be overlooked as primary educational agents in this work. In many places, public authorities, such as municipal departments of public welfare, are doing much to spread information relative to the causes and the prevention of accidents of various kinds. The radio and moving pictures are likewise utilized to good advantage. Radio talks as generally presented, however, are apt to prove boring to the listening public, but short dramatic sketches do hold the attention. Since every accident is a matter of human interest, it would seem that one of the most forceful means of presenting safety education

to the public would be to dramatize accidents of various types over the radio or in the movies.

In many schools formal instruction in safety work and accident prevention is now offered to the pupils. A number of excellent handbooks are available for the use of school children. As might be expected, considerable stress is placed on traffic hazards from the pedestrian's standpoint, thus helping to make the child conscious of the dangers which beset him while on the public highways. A valuable suggestion is to reinforce such instruction with one or two addresses in the school by a member of the local police force selected for his knowledge of traffic conditions and safety measures, and his ability to explain such matters to children. It would seem that the proper time to give such instruction is at the earliest possible age, for the sooner a child is acquainted with traffic hazards, the more effective such instruction will be. General rules and advice about crossing streets, playing in the public highways, "hitching rides," and other dangerous practices can be explained quite easily in an elementary fashion to the child when he first enters school, and can be repeated at frequent intervals. Traffic regulations and safety measures may well be treated in greater detail in the following school years.

Inasmuch as every normal child must be regarded as a potential driver of motor vehicles within a few years after leaving school, it seems reasonable to assert that safety education should not stop with the rights and duties of the pedestrian, but by the seventh or eighth school year the child should be acquainted with the "rules of the road," and the rights, duties, and responsibilities of the automobilist. Without doubt, such preliminary instruction afforded to the future automobile driver would bear fruit in better understanding, a deeper consideration of the rights of others, more caution, and greater care in the handling of motor vehicles by boys and girls when they arrive at the minimum age at which they are permitted to drive a car.

Safety education in the public schools is not, however,

to be confined to traffic hazards alone, but if carefully planned would embrace cautions about the use of matches, the danger of gas leaks, the avoidance of poisonous substances and of firearms, which are occasionally left within reach of children. First-aid instruction is of primary importance, especially for the children in the higher age groups. In this connection, perhaps, it would not be amiss to give demonstrations in the prone system of resuscitation. This could well be done as part of the work in physical education, for the knowledge so acquired would be visual and not merely a matter of memory retention. In technical or vocational schools the elements of industrial safety and accident prevention merit a definite place.

It may be objected here and there that safety education in the public schools is but another of the so-called fads or frills which occasion so much popular antipathy. A moment's reflection, however, is sufficient to convince one that this is not so. Urbanization is increasing at a more rapid pace than ever before. It is an incontrovertible fact that accident hazards in the modern city are mounting with rapid strides, partially as a result of increasing density of population and partially as a result of the mechanization of life and industry. The latter fact holds true for the rural population as well. Safety education, then, must be regarded from the very necessity of the case as an essential of the present-day curriculum. It is intensely practical; it is education in self-maintenance—a product of the exigencies of modern life.

THE PROBLEM OF HEALTH IN TEACHER- TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

GRACE M. KAHRs

The foundation of good health in the teacher must be laid in her own school days. To produce a race of teachers better fortified to endure strain in their work would indeed be a Herculean task; an impossible task if attempted after the profession has once claimed the time and energy and attention of the teacher; but, certainly, a quite feasible task if undertaken during the student days of the training school girl. If the child is father to the man, so is the student mother to the teacher she is to become.

The teacher-training institutions must accept the task that falls to them, the task of inducing health in the future race of pedagogues.

Certain aspects of the significance of the teacher's position lead to the consideration of a method of approach to the subject. It is well to consider, first, just what is the fundamental function of the teacher. She is not just a person who is to give instruction in the three R's—and sometimes a little besides—she is indeed the person who has a large part to play in making the child what is desired—a complete and well-balanced individual.

Educators today make this the aim of the modern school. They realize that a teacher is a kind of extension of mother and father and that a five-hour-a-day influence has a large part in shaping the future of the child. If he is to be made healthy, his teacher must be able to assist in the task intelligently. And where better can this task be performed? Is not the teacher's opportunity unique? She has the child under her guidance five hours daily for about ten years!

After all, a person may learn to read and write at the age of seventy but no one can grow a new tooth at that age nor build a sound strong body at thirty or forty.

This must be done throughout those precious formative years of childhood, those vital ten years which can never again be repeated—the results of which can never be undone.

Even while she is giving a lesson in history or arithmetic, the teacher will carry an example of health if she is alert, erect, clear skinned, and of good color. Did not the Greeks use statues as ideals of physical perfection? The teacher models must be living models, set up before the children.

It is this aspect of the teacher that is to be considered here, and the matter of the training of teachers in the subject of health, while they are yet students in college, and also the work of those same young women after they have left the normal schools and taken their places in rooms full of impressionable children.

It is well known, of course, that within recent years phenomenal improvement has been won in the health of babies and younger children. It is easily realized that the health battle was won for the little people only when the parents had been made *conscious* of the royal possibility of glowing health for babies.

But babies grow up, and the health knowledge of their parents peters out. There is little sound knowledge abroad about health after the age of six or eight. The youths in their teens and early twenties just grow.

And at the age of seventeen or eighteen the girls enter normal school to learn to be teachers. In their courses they study their own minds, but many of them have an inadequate knowledge of their own bodies. And they drag along with their studies, handicapped by various physical defects. Now it should be the business of the training school to see that these young teachers are healthy and happy. With the present system it is possible to find frail delicate girls struggling with turbulent classes. There may be a teacher tortured with indigestion and a consequently cranky disposition. She may be an unfortunate

overweight, an offense to the sight of beauty-loving children. She may be an undernourished nervous wreck.

The results? Any school official can supply them. The teacher who is not in good physical condition is a poor disciplinarian. It is a truism to say that a healthy person emanates a glow of force. And conversely, no teacher below par controls children by any means but nagging and threatening processes which torment the nerves of youngsters.

The healthy, calm, well-poised teacher gets order and attention and results without efforts. The sick teacher works in a vicious circle. The disorder annoys her, and her nervous reaction aggravates the state of affairs. It is not pleasant to think of the forty tots compelled to stay for five hours in a closed room listening to the strident tones of a sick, overtired teacher.

If any occupation requires robust health, it is certainly that of teaching, that unique occupation which is a composite of most others. The teacher is closed in, and so requires the mental serenity of the contemplative. She is using her brain without interruption, and so requires the mental alertness of the student. She is guiding a mass of active young people, and so requires the force of the group leader.

Besides demanding of teachers academic subject matter, we ask also for poise, control of emotional problems, that strange power to command a situation. We expect these things in teachers. But when we fail to demand good health, we fail to demand these very qualities that inhere in good health. Most people would agree that crankiness is due far more to some phase of ill health than to anybody's natural disposition. Healthy people are usually cheerful.

What can be done? Discard all teachers that fail to measure up to the ideal of grace and charm pictured? Obviously not.

The normal schools can seize upon their opportunity and

produce teachers so healthy and so health minded that in the future the ailing teacher will no longer be found in our midst.

It is a practical possibility to utilize those significant three years which the girl spends in a teacher-training school and to turn her out a normal woman in good health, *aware* of her own good health, and of its value and necessity.

We want to bring it about that these girls will inevitably become health educators themselves, first by standing out as glowing examples of health and, secondly, as intelligent observers and guides to their pupils in all matters pertaining to health.

It is not enough for teachers to know the laws of hygiene, as they are learned from books and lectures. The teacher must, so to speak, learn health by living it. It is an old principle of psychology that the best way to learn to do a thing is to do it. A boy might read a whole book on how to play baseball, but not learn so much as he would in a half hour of pitching. So, with health. The young woman who *consciously* lives a healthy life is the one who knows health.

The word "consciously" furnishes the key to the problem. The girls must realize that they are becoming healthy (and incidentally, sometimes beautiful) because they are intelligently ridding themselves of defects, and living up to the rules of nutrition, of body function, and correct health habits. They must look upon health as a "way of living," not as an academic subject, a circumscribed matter of knowledge in a single period of a school day.

This question of the mental attitude of the teacher is the most important of all. If she has no enthusiastic conviction of the desirability of radiant health, her own manner of living will quickly indicate the fact. For instance, consider the girl who insists on dieting when she is underweight. An undernourished teacher has no pep. She must be taught to see the need of a reasonable amount of *avoirdupois* to supply the physical demands of her job.

Once the teacher has attained to this intelligent comprehension of her own physical self, it is natural for her to carry over that knowledge minute by minute to her class.

The teacher who is calm and self-controlled, because she is healthy and knows it, will easily notice the abnormal nervousness of some pupils and will have knowledge of the proper sources of assistance to which she may turn.

If, besides, she has a lively interest in such things as the signs of communicable diseases and their control, she will be the means of heading off many an epidemic of colds, measles, and such.

Her opportunity to institute a desirable program of daily activities for health and growth is a God-sent one, provided she understands what constitutes a healthful environment for a growing child.

To bring about this state of rosy health-mindedness in teachers should be the aim of the health work in normal schools. The need for such an aim is indicated by the story of a college woman, a woman whose point of view is a kind of composite, as she is a college graduate, the mother of four children, aged now ten to seventeen, the oldest in college, and she is a teacher in a public high school, and engages in various outside undertakings. Her contact with high-school girls and boys is very large and very close, and, in an unofficial way, she is like a mother to hundreds. "Do you know," she remarked recently, "that all the health knowledge I possess has come to me slowly through the years, in haphazard fashion?" She says that it has taken her twenty years of piecing together bits of information gleaned from various doctors to give her a comprehension of the needs of children. After college she taught for two years—biology as it happened. She said, "At twenty I was teaching biology (which included hygiene) when I endured frantic headaches every week or so myself." Then she married, sublimely ignorant of health education. Operations, babies, sicknesses, and a gradual knowledge as kind doctors taught her everything from how to care

for scarlet fever to such things as throat swabbing and corrective exercises for poor postures, have, as she says, given her a random health education.

Today she knows enough. But had she, as a college girl, consciously learned healthful living herself, and the rudiments of the healthy life for children, all her burdens those twenty years would have been reduced enormously. Certainly, things have improved in recent years, but girls have still much to learn! And they are learning.

In a normal school, it is possible to bring it about that when a girl becomes a teacher, she assumes her task unhandicapped by any health condition of her own, and is equipped with a definite working knowledge of how to help in the health education of children. No one of these girls need acquire health experience in the haphazard fashion of the teacher-mother-patient.

On the contrary, we are aiming to build up an intensive health program. This program is based primarily upon careful individual health examinations; examinations which are not in any sense perfunctory. Adequate time must be allowed for a complete analysis of each student and her health problems.

The findings gleaned from the examinations of the incoming freshmen are so varied and so detailed, that they furnish adequate material for a course in health education and for an indefinite amount of follow-up work during the three years to come.

The fact that the examination is given in the first weeks of the freshman's college life, when she is most open to impression, gives first-rate opportunity to make every girl at once health conscious.

Only seven of a class of one hundred fifty-eight were found free from demonstrable defects. These defects cover wide range, but, for instance, to mention those roots of so much evil, the teeth. Of the one hundred fifty-eight, forty-three were greatly in need of prophylaxis, forty-two had caries of a marked degree, and sixty-two had many

missing teeth, with no notion at all of the necessity for prompt replacement.

This markedly poor dental condition is the more surprising when we recall the careful and painstaking dental programs in force in many public-school systems.

Procrastination we know causes much serious illness, because people *will* postpone that visit to the doctor, and we can only conclude that mother allows daughter to put off the visit to the dentist, week after week.

And consider such a matter as nutrition. We found by count that sixty-eight of these girls were decidedly below par, and seventeen were distinctly obese. For instance, one girl's condition called for approximately an additional twenty-five or thirty pounds, while another gave evidence of being actually more than one hundred pounds in excess of what she should weigh.

It is not easy to persuade "slim" girls that it is desirable for them to be moderately overweight up to the age of thirty. But we find that they heed our warnings against the "no breakfast" habit quite satisfactorily. They begin to understand that a well-nourished person has greater resistance to disease and especially to frequent colds—this country's most prevalent affliction—that a few needed pounds means better tone to the system and therefore higher resistance.

Victory in this matter is important also, from the psychological point of view, because it shows that the students are becoming health conscious. That is the state of mind so valuable in a teacher. Health as a constructive force in life is the desideratum; we want to lead the students to appreciate and to live the healthful life.

There are difficulties, of course, in the home environment which make almost insurmountable obstacles to health for these college girls. Some can be overcome, others cannot. Long-distance travel under trying conditions. For instance, one girl spends four hours a day in buses. She has no time for exercise and insufficient time for sleep.

Some girls are wage earners. One worked in a chain store after school, having long hours and in very trying conditions. In that case, fortunately, it was possible to get her a position in the school library, where she was able to make her needed amount of money in shorter time.

Teachers, friends, and physicians could all lead a helping hand in such cases to aid the girl to help herself to health.

In short, we endeavor to make our health service a vital course in conscious healthful living.

Upon her arrival in normal school, the future teacher will be at once induced to look upon health and the habit of sane healthful living as an essential part of the equipment she is to acquire for her profession. She will rank health as prerequisite to academic achievement.

HONESTY TRENDS IN CHILDREN

HAROLD SAXE TUTTLE

Two problems face the student of character education: First, are there normal trends in character? Is social heredity effective enough to produce reasonable unity among growing children? How greatly do children conform to their social environment? How early does conformity begin in a degree which may be called moral? If there is a high conformity at any stage does it tend to increase or decrease as time passes? In other words, to what degree does social adjustment occur among normal children in a typical environment without any special effort at character training?

Any study of the effect of specific methods which look towards the education of character in any way needs to be checked against a large section of the group represented. Small control groups lack reliability because so many different selective elements are likely to be operative in any particular control group. In a study of some specific methods there is a large degree of probability that a half-dozen effective influences will be at work. Some of these influences may be responsible for the greatest differences which occur in the character growth of children. In dealing with a single control group there is no means of knowing whether the group is representative or highly selective.

The second problem relates to the technique of discovering conditioning factors. Can social agencies which modify conduct be measured without isolating each one under controlled conditions? In a normal environment in which many social forces are operating can those which are most influential in changing conduct be detected? Is it possible to devise techniques analogous to those in quali-

tative analysis in chemistry, by means of which the element sought can be measured within the compound?

This question is of critical importance in the future development of social research. There is a high probability—certainly there is an unquestioned possibility—that the isolation of social forces from a normal complex environment may altogether change their effect upon the subjects studied. The analogy of chemistry is again germane. Oxygen and carbon may be mixed at one temperature with only imperceptible chemical combination. Identically the same elements may combine with explosive force when the temperature is changed. On this point, indeed, it is not necessary to rely upon analogies; illustrations are abundant. A boy has misbehaved in a schoolroom; the teacher calls him to the desk; with stern face and voice she reprimands him. What will be the effect? It all depends upon whether the incident occurred in the presence of the class or in their absence. It is not possible to determine the influence of social forces, when isolated from other social forces, which are present in a normal situation. The accepted scientific procedure in the physical sciences is to isolate each element under investigation. So long as this technique is considered necessary in the social field we shall be measuring, so to speak, the chemical properties of carbon and oxygen at seventy degrees centigrade and, assuming that we have a unit description of the relation of these elements, missing entirely the difference in their behavior at four hundred degrees centigrade. If, however, it is possible to measure different forces in their normal complex operation there is high promise that social science may rapidly be able to develop effective techniques of social control.

With a view to securing data which will tend to provide the answers to these two questions the author has recently carried on a study of honesty trends among pupils of grades four to seven, in thirteen different schools. There were 2,037 cases tested. Of these, 1,320 cases were followed

through a two-year period. The major feature of the study was a performance test in changing answers in a well-motivated school contest. A carbon device completely concealed from the subjects was utilized. This test was given at the opening of school, at the close of the first school year, and at the close of the second. Distinctly different forms were used in order that previous contests might be suggested as little as possible.

The tests thus given provided two distinct means of indicating tendencies. In each of the tests a comparison of the school grades served to indicate general grade tendencies towards deceit at that time. With three such cross sections it was possible to corroborate one conclusion by means of the other two. In addition to these cross sections the case histories of nearly seventy per cent of the cases through the two-year period made it possible to determine whether individuals showed the same tendencies towards deceit over a period of time as the cross sections of the grades indicated.

In addition to the general trends, data were gathered as to intelligence quotients, ethical judgments, attendance at religious classes, and biblical knowledge. The conclusions to be drawn from such a study have bearing upon many other problems besides those just suggested. In so far as the data here gathered are concerned three different tendencies began to be evident.

1. In the first place, intelligence correlates highly with honesty tendencies. Intelligence quotients were secured for 1,055 cases. For one comparison the cases were divided into three groups, those below an I. Q. of 90, those between 90 and 110, and those above 110. Of the superior group only 11 per cent were consistently deceitful, while 50 per cent were consistently honest. Of the subnormal group 22 per cent were consistently deceitful, 33 per cent consistently honest. It is significant that the percentage of the consistently deceitful cases below an I. Q. of 90 is

twice as great as that above 110. The contrast of percentages of the consistently honest is equally striking.

All cases for whom I. Q.'s were secured were classified into four groups: group A, representing the cases who resorted to deceit at both the beginning and the end of the two-year period; group B, consisting of those who deceived in the final test though not in the first; group C, those who did not deceive in the final test but had done so in the first; group D, those who did not deceive in any test.

Of the 148 cases in group A, 52 had I. Q.'s below 90; 20 above 110. Reduced to percentages the former group represented 35 per cent of the total, and the latter group 13 per cent. In other words, of the consistently deceitful cases more than one third were below the 90 I. Q. limit, while scarcely one third of that proportion were above the 110 division. Of the 58 cases that developed deceit after the first test, 19 or 33 per cent fell below the 90 I. Q. limit, while only 8 or 14 per cent were above the 110 mark. The similarity of the two groups is apparent and striking. However, in group C, of the 346 cases indicating reform, 92 or 26 per cent of the total had I. Q.'s below 90, and 61, representing 18 per cent, above 110. Of the 337 in group D, the consistently honest, 71, or 21 per cent, were below 90, while 89, 26 per cent, were above 110.

Table I following indicates more graphically the relation between the intelligence quotient and tendencies towards deceit. The percentage columns show constant and marked decrease from group A to D in percentages below a 90 I. Q., and a constant and significant increase above 110.

Total cases	Group	TABLE I				
		Cases below 90 I. Q.	Cases between 90 and 110	Cases above 110	Per cent below 90	Per cent above 110
148	A	52	76	20	35	13
58	B	19	30	8	33	14
346	C	92	193	61	26	18
337	D	71	177	89	21	26
		234		178		

2. Tendencies from grade to grade were not so significant, although on the whole increased grade showed im-

provement in honesty. The case histories were somewhat more consistent than the cross sections and are probably more dependable indications of typical trends. Of the 793 who resorted to deceit in the first test 625 did not do so in the final test. On the basis of 1,383 cases for whom complete data were secured at the beginning this represents 45 per cent. Only 168 cases consistently resorted to deceit, which represents 12 per cent of the total. Of the 590 cases who did not deceive in the first test only 63, or less than 5 per cent of the total, did so in the final test. The tendencies towards reform clearly outnumber the tendency to become more deceitful. Allowing for a considerable number of cases of suspicion regarding the purpose of the tests, of which no evidence seems available, it is difficult to account for evidences of ten times as large a per cent of reform as of retrogression without some basis of fact.

3. Any study which seeks to discover conditions has just as great significance in the negative results secured as in the positive. Failure to find correlation between any given social factor and tendencies towards deceit may be of as great or even greater significance than the discovery of correlations. It is therefore important to report the relation between geographical areas and honesty tendencies.

The following table (Table II) will give a graphic picture of the findings in this regard. The thirteen schools are listed without identification. The total number in each school concerning whom data were gathered is indicated in column 2. This number served as the basis upon which to compute percentages in all cases. The four classes of cases already described are indicated in the table in reverse order. The consistently honest corresponds to group D. It will be noted from the table that there is very little correlation between rankings of the four classes—indeed there is no high correlation between any two.

Two conclusions are evident so far as the data are concerned. Tendencies towards improvement in each higher grade over the previous grade are not uniform in all schools,

although the dominant tendencies are in that direction. Wide ranges of differences, however, occur when comparing the two extreme schools. Clearly, any study of methods intended to modify conduct should take into consideration geographical areas before measurements are begun. So far as social types in different geographical areas are concerned it will be painful to some to know that the so-called better classes of society do not show any consistent advantage. Control groups in future studies should particularly take into account the question of social environment, carefully avoiding a mixture of groups from different environments.

The second conclusion from the data presented is that the forces tending to produce honesty are very strong outside the school. School D ranked highest in per cent of cases of consistent honesty but ranked tenth in improvement, while at the same time it showed little tendency towards increased deceitfulness. Were the tendencies to be found chiefly within the school itself the correlations should be much higher. School A ranked twelfth in consistent honesty, ranked next to the top in improvement, but ranked low in deceitfulness on both counts.

TABLE II

School	Total in school taking tests	Consistently honest			Improved			More deceitful			Consistently deceitful*		
		No	% of total	Rank	No	% of total	Rank	No	% of total	Rank	No	% of total	Rank
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
A	91	20	21	XII	50	54	II	6	7-	VIII	15	16	X
B	131	37	28	XI	58	44	VI	9	7	IX	27	21	XI
C	91	33	36	VII	46	51	IV	4	6	VII	8	9	II
D	97	46	48	I	40	41	X	2	2	I	9	9	III
E	180	71	39+	V	76	42	IX	4	2	III	29	16	IX
F	68	23	33	IX	30	44	VII	7	10	XI	8	12	V
G	137	54	39	VI	55	40	XI	12	9	X	16	12	IV
H	92	42	45+	II	39	42	VIII	2	2	II	11	12	VI
I	169	70	41	IV	87	51	III	4	3	IV	8	5	I
J	63	22	34	VIII	29	46	V	3	5	V	9	14	VIII
K	65	21	32	X	44	68	I						
L	197	88	45-	III	71	36	XII	10	5+	VI	28	14	VII

*Rank I in columns 11 and 14 means "best" record, i. e., lowest degree of deceit. This corresponds to the first and second sets of ranks, which represent degrees of honesty. The four columns are thus positively comparable.

On the whole, it may be said that question two appears

to be answered in the affirmative to a sufficient degree to justify further extensive studies in this direction. Question one seems to be answered positively with reference to I. Q.'s, and slightly with reference to increased age. Little evidence was found to indicate other constant trends which might be considered dependable as a basis for corroborating future control groups.

HEALTH AND SAFETY PROJECT

NELLIE NASH McNEILL

My plan at the opening of school was to make health and safety an objective in my school work; but how much I could accomplish with first-grade children was another problem.

Our Board of Education employs a physician, a dentist, and a staff of nurses. When school opened in September, the children were examined for physical defects, weighed, and measured. Notices were then sent to parents whose children needed medical attention. About eight of my class of thirty-six were found to be more than five pounds underweight.

Opening exercises for several weeks consisted of talks on food, sleep, exercise, and cleanliness. This put the children in the proper frame of mind to start scoring a few points which we wanted to work on particularly. We decided on three items for our score cards; going to bed early, eating hot cereal each morning, and keeping hands and nails clean. I made individual score cards, and each child pasted a picture of a bowl of hot cereal or a healthy child on his card. The cards were hung on a large bulletin board and were checked each morning for "early to bed" and "hot cereal breakfast." If a child had checks for the week on both items, a gold star was given both on the individual score and the group score.

The clean-hand chart was kept for each row of children. Each child made a copy of his own hand, and the best one in each row was mounted on black paper and numbered. These were also tacked on the bulletin board. If the morning inspector found all the hands and nails clean, the white hand was exposed that day; but if any hands were dirty, the black side of the card was turned out. The children made an effort to keep the white hand out, as a gold star was placed on a finger if the clean hand was out all week.

It was decided that we could have more perfect scores if the mothers knew of our project, so each child wrote a letter to his mother asking her to help with their health club. Many mothers answered the letters and their co-operation was an incentive to the children.

Our reading table was another great help. Books on health and safety were provided, which the children read during spare time and which I also read to them.

They made "safety lessons" booklets from material obtained from the National Safety Council. They discussed the dangers that were illustrated, colored the pictures, and made booklets of the ten illustrations. The pages were numbered with numbers cut from calendars, and the words "safety lessons" mounted on the covers. These were used on the reading table also, and are still doing service for my new class.

The children were encouraged to relate their experiences and to tell things they had done to make their homes safe, such as picking up toys, watching younger children, and sanding slippery sidewalks.

Such keen interest was shown by the class that improvement was evident, so when they were weighed at the close of the semester I was very much pleased with the results. Gains ranged from one to six pounds over a period of three months.

The parents, too, seemed pleased with the good that was being done. Some taught their children how to tell time so that they would know when it was eight-thirty, their bedtime. They told me the children would not stay up five minutes overtime. One mother told me that she had tried for some time to get her children to eat hot cereal, but with no success, and that she could never thank me enough for getting her child to eat it every day. She not only ate it herself, but she induced the older children to eat it.

As the semester was nearing the close, we discussed what we could do about continuing the health club, and we

finally decided to write a letter to the second-grade teacher, asking her to continue the club.

I feel that these children have gained materially by the health work we did and I hope that they will continue to hold the attitude which they have formed. I have never seen keener interest displayed, and I could see the improvement it made both physically and mentally. The children were wide-awake, happy, and healthy, and were eager to do all the work given them.

SOME OF THE HIGH LIGHTS OF HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF SYRACUSE, N. Y.

IVA PASCO BENNETT

The principal and school nurse of Montgomery school were much concerned at the amount of candy which was being consumed daily by the pupils. Their attention was called to this fact more forcefully because of the many and constant complaints of headache, stomach ache, and many colds. They investigated the matter a bit and found that the children were buying a very inferior grade and the cheapest kinds of candy. The population (415) of this school is about fifty per cent foreign and the rest are mostly poor whites. Many of these children are very poorly nourished.

Finally it was decided to try selling apples at school. A bushel was purchased at first. The apples were sold for one or two cents depending upon the size. These were gone almost immediately. Then the order was enlarged to a barrel. It became "the style to eat apples" and these disappeared very quickly. More and more apples were bought and nearly forty bushels were consumed in about four months.

On some days a bushel a day was sold. The remarkable result of this experiment is that now there is almost never a complaint of a headache or stomachache, the percentage of colds has greatly diminished, and the cheap candy fad is nearly abolished in that district.

English and language work affords excellent opportunity for introducing health. The following is an English composition on "cereals" from a four-two grade.

HEALTH

To be healthy we must eat cereals. There are different kinds of cereals. Some have coats, some are without the coats. If we want to be healthy we must eat cereals with the coats on. The cereals with the coats on are called the whole

cereals. These cereals contain iron and lime which help to build strong teeth and bones

We must be careful in choosing the right kind of cereals. Some of the whole cereals are puffed wheat, cornmeal, wheateana, shredded wheat, and oatmeal.

An experiment with an eight-one health club was tried in our Lincoln Junior High School last term. A home-economics teacher who had free time was in charge of this club. The children elected their own officers and conducted the club themselves. Topics which they would like to study were discussed and planned for the term.

First they studied the sanitary and safety conditions of the school building and grounds. This included the ventilation system, the cafeteria, the water supply, fire protection, playgrounds, etc. Committees were appointed to inspect and report to the class both the good and the bad points found from their survey. As a result of these investigations, the janitor was asked to increase the water pressure at certain fountains, to use a deodorant in the basement near the toilets, and to repair rollers on some of the window shades.

The cafeteria was taken up as a separate problem, covering several lessons. It was then possible to incorporate food selection and costs, courtesy and deportment at mealtime, and health conditions of the workers as well as the sanitation and arrangement of the equipment. Some most interesting facts were revealed in food selection.

One whole month was devoted to an investigation of the city public-health agencies. Trips were made to the city health department, the free dispensary, and one of the well baby clinics. The whole class was invited to go on these trips, but it was not compulsory. From fifteen to twenty attended nearly every time, about half boys and girls, and the reports given to the club were most gratifying. Much interest and enthusiasm was created throughout the school as a result of these exploits. The club is being continued this term with those same children and a new one is started with the eight-one class. We hope to have many more committees working and do some constructive follow-up work from the surveys made last term.

THE VALUE OF REST AND SLEEP

ETHEL A. GROSSCUP

Good sleep and good nature usually go together.

The folk adage "sleep on it" sprang from the observation of the increased wisdom following a good night's sleep.

In the sleepless we find something lacking—a zest, an enjoyment, the living of life at its highest pitch. There is something forced and uncertain in the mirth of the sleepless, something cranky in their good humor. They take offense at unmeant trifles. They faint with an easy day's effort, and with Shakespeare's Caesar we fain would cry—"Let me have men about me such as sleep o' nights."

Without sleep the unwearied heart would never have the partial rest that each night slows its beat by 8 strokes a minute. This is the only near rest—without this the blood pressure, heightened by our modern rush, would never fall, since the relaxation of the walls of the blood vessels would not take place.

But sad to relate, not only do we adults rob ourselves of sleep but we steal it from children. For the sake of popularity and applause mothers are apt to exploit the health of their children. They like to see them star at evening entertainments, in solo dances, and recitals

We all like to see parents interested and proud of the accomplishments of their children, but not to the point of risking their good health so that the parents may reap the glory and praise of having clever offsprings.

Sometimes, associations organized specifically for the welfare of children are grave offenders. I have often given talks on child health to such organizations at evening meetings, where many in the audience were children who should have been in bed.

Insufficient sleep depletes the reserve energy of the child and undermines his efficiency just as it does in adults

Sleep is the resting time of the brain. The brain cannot be active all the time any more than any other organ. When it is at rest, the result is unconsciousness. Eight hours of dreamless sleep should ensure sufficient mental and physical rest to the average person. In so far as the sleep is disturbed the mind is not absolutely at rest.

Fatigue is the chief condition tending to bring on sleep. The most commonly accepted theory of fatigue is that it is the condition which results when through continuous activity the waste products accumulate in the blood stream more rapidly than they can be disposed of. There is the type of fatigue that is capable of doing permanent injury. It is the type which accumulates over days or weeks during which the rest at night is not sufficient to bring complete recovery from the fatigue of the day. A more common example of this type of fatigue is seen in the high-strung, overexcitable girl of today, who wakes herself up with an alarm clock every morning after dancing most of the night and never gets quite enough rest to start the day feeling entirely fit. She does not always look "stunted and emaciated," but she usually looks old before her time.

Even though some eminent and highly intellectual men have been able to go through life with very little sleep, it is no precedent for the general run of people.

An interesting experiment was performed on animals showing the effect of lack of sleep. They were deprived of sleep by means of a revolving cage, and at the end of four or five days they died, although they could have lived without food for twenty days. From this experiment, it has been estimated that if man were totally deprived of sleep for a period of ten days he would die, although he might live without food as long as six weeks.

The mystery and witchery of sleep have been sources of speculation and wonder to humanity through the ages. The recuperative functions of sleep, the means by which

the mental and bodily wear and tear of each day's acts are repaired, has an important bearing on health.

We used to think that the healthy sleeper "slept like a log," but we have found the contrary to be true. Recently, a report was made on experiments and studies of posture during sleep conducted by several University of Pittsburgh professors. Nightly observations of sleepers were made over a two-year period with the help of the movie camera. The Pittsburgh investigators proved that the most restful night's sleep is characterized by the use of a considerable variety of bodily positions, all of which are contorted. There are sometimes as many as from 20 to 45 shifts of position during 8 hours of sleep.

Hence we see how essential to restful sleep it is that we sleep alone. Otherwise, these natural shiftings of position may annoy the other person and disturb his sleep. The bed should be comfortable and sufficiently wide to permit freedom of movement.

Be sure that the covers are adjusted to the season, and remember that sleep can be banished by too few clothes as well as too many. In cold weather be sure there is no cold air coming from beneath. This may be checked by putting newspapers or a blanket between the springs and the mattress.

The right of all adults to 8 hours of tranquil repose in full unconsciousness every night should be held as inalienable as their right to exist. Sleep is not the privilege of the few; it is a physiological necessity for all. It is not a luxury, but an imperative function. It is as necessary as breathing, eating, drinking, or excreting.

At present we sleep where we can, usually in the midst of a pandemonium caused by every kind of noise.

With children—noise, excitement, irritating music, strenuous play before retiring are, perhaps, amongst the most important common causes of disturbed sleep. Often a state of emotional fatigue is produced which interferes with falling asleep and may cause fear and night terrors.

Some people accustomed to noises at night fail to sleep

in quiet surroundings. City people sometimes have this experience upon going to the country where the nights seem strangely quiet by contrast. This calls to mind the ancient ditty:

An old lady who lived by the shore
At length got so used to the roar
That she never could sleep
Unless some one would keep
Apounding away at the door.

Sleep is measured by its depth as well as by its duration. It is difficult to determine the quantity and proper degree of depth of sleep needed for the average human being.

I have said that the average adult needs not less than 8 hours sleep each night. With children this varies according to age. A healthy infant sleeps from 20 to 22 hours out of the 24 during the first weeks of its life; at 6 months, from 16 to 18 hours is the usual sleeping time. All children between the ages of 2 and 4 should have a daily nap or rest of 1 to 2 hours. Between the ages of 4 and 6 they should have a daily nap or rest of at least 1 hour.

In the schedule of sleep for children given us by authorities, the rising hour at all ages is put at 7 a. m. Beginning with 4 years, the necessary amount of sleep according to age runs as follows:

AGES	BEDTIME	HOURS SLEEP
4 to 6	6 00 p. m.	13
6 to 8	7.00 p. m.	12
8 to 10	7.30 p. m.	11½
10 to 12	8.00 p. m.	11
12 to 14	8 30 p. m.	10½
14 to 16	9 00 p. m.	10
16 to 18	10 00 p. m.	9

The child's retiring time should never vary. No light should burn in the room during sleeping hours, and the air should be cool and moving with no direct draft.

Undue excitement or hard study right up to the time of going to bed is apt to postpone sleep. The child should go to bed happy and contented.

Let us be particularly careful that the boy and girl of high-school age get their proper amount of sleep. The period of adolescence, of neither being children nor adults, is taxing. Then, too, the body with too little rest and sleep is more susceptible to disease.

Once more must we caution parents that the tuberculosis death rate is still high among boys and girls of high-school age. For the 15 to 19 age group, the tuberculosis death rate for girls is nearly twice that of boys.

We must do all we can to build up strength and energy in young children in order to give them the maximum physical vigor to carry them safely through the period of adolescence to sturdy manhood and womanhood.

May I give a few suggestions to my readers who find it difficult to drop to sleep easily. First—a light lunch, say crackers and warm milk, but this should not be bulky enough to distend the diaphragm upward. A lukewarm bath (water 92 or 95 degrees) is still better. Second—avoid excessive fatigue. If you have overexcited your brain, it may help to take a brisk walk in the fresh air just before retiring. This is especially good, since exercise takes the blood into the skin and muscles and therefore away from the brain. This will be helpful if one has to sleep in the same room in which he has been working during the day. Third—turn off your emotion motors. Break orderly associations by indulging in "word salads" of insane nonsense even if you have to resort to repeating poetry, one word to every breath.

And last but not least remember that the most wide-awake and active people in the daytime are usually the best sleepers.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of the JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

TIMELINESS AND COSTLINESS OF RESEARCH

The experience of the Research Bureau of the Welfare Council of New York City regarding timeliness of studies has been enlightening.¹ There seems to be a great deal of belief in magic still extant, for it is not unusual, upon an announcement that a study is to be made, for us immediately to receive from various parts of the country requests for copies of the report. When people are told that few studies can be made in less than a year's time and that some projects require as much as three or five years, they question whether research is the medicine they need. And we share their doubts. We have come to test the seriousness of the intentions of groups by their willingness to wait and by the sustained interest which they display while a study is in progress. On the other hand, materials develop timeliness and usefulness most unexpectedly. All of the social indexes, all the material on social-work finance, and many of our other endeavors came into their own last winter. The research staff is, of course, as anxious as any other group to issue material, especially that relating to rapidly changing conditions, as promptly as possible, but they are not magicians. Our hope lies in the belief that on the foundations which we have tried to lay, it will become increasingly easy to mobilize significant materials rapidly and accurately.

¹This statement on the timeliness and costliness of research arising out of the experience of the Research Bureau of the New York Welfare Council is contributed by Neva R. Dear-dorff, director of the Research Bureau. The original article by Dr. Deardorff, of which this statement was a part, appeared in the May (1931) special number of the *Journal* on research. At the suggestion of the author, the statement was omitted at that time on account of a shortage of space.

Stimulating as is the alliance between a growing, dynamic affair such as the Welfare Council's planning bodies and the research organization, it is true that the time pressure put upon the Bureau by the very circumstances of the case does not make for those conditions of mature and leisurely study and thought, usually deemed essential to the flowering of the finest forms of scientific imagination and to the execution of exquisitely finished work. Against the great need of the clientele of the Research Bureau for the issuance of materials almost the instant that they have been formulated stands the conviction of the research wing of the organization that there should be opportunity for ideas to be "aged in the wood." There has been a great deal of patient compromise on both sides so that, while this is regarded as a real problem, it is not acute.

No one who has become familiar with social research can but be impressed with its costliness. The Research Bureau now has 47 persons on its payroll, and at the moment is spending at the rate of \$12,000 a month. This includes not only the payroll but all charges such as rent, telephone, office supplies, postage, printing, mimeographing, and mechanical tabulating. Some years ago, Professor Harold J. Laski, writing in *Harper's Magazine*, commented on the high cost of social studies in the United States and indicated that if these had been done by academic institutions this cost could have been greatly reduced. It seemed to us that this was a specious argument and somewhat unbecoming a social scientist. It is true that research can seem to be done inexpensively if the cost-accounting system charges a large part of the time consumed by those who are carrying it on to something else, that is, to teaching or administrative work. But that does not establish that it has cost society any less to get the job done. Most of the studies worth doing at all require the expenditure of some one's time and energy in the responsible discharge of a duty publicly assumed or assigned, and no one has yet found a way to suspend the living costs of those who are doing it. Whether their

maintenance comes via a post in a teaching institution, a fellowship or scholarship, a salary from a research organization, or from their own private resources, the bill is being paid for, and human resources are being consumed. It would seem to be important for the community to understand what the cost of research is, whoever pays the bill. This can be known only if all research projects are budgeted and accounted for completely, including all the overhead charges required. In the Welfare Council's research program this principle has been followed and a rigid accounting made in terms of every project upon which the Bureau ever has worked. Unfortunately, there is little or no comparative data from other organizations. Possibly, some time a few research organizations may privately compare notes, look the facts in the face, and work up collective courage to tell the public just what it costs to carry on even a small social inquiry.

Whether the fact finding and studies of the Welfare Council ever contribute anything to social science or the discovery of truth, only time will tell. Meanwhile, it pursues its quest for information immediately useful to those responsible for the direction of New York City's social and health work.

RESEARCH ON REGIONALISM

Research into regionalism, that is, urban areas representing communities of greater extent than the single town or city, has acquired increased significance in recent years. This is due largely to the problems of social organization arising as a result of the linking together of towns and cities by mutual facilities for interaction into metropolitan areas and regions. Educational problems have arisen as a result of an exchange of educational services, both formal and informal, in these areas. Problems of centralization and distribution of these services have arisen as well as those of modifying educational programs to meet the needs of changing constituencies.

A variety of interesting studies of regional problems of

an educational institution of the nonformal type are being carried on by members of the national organization of the Young Women's Christian Association.

The tenth annual institute of the Society for Social Research of the University of Chicago (August 28 to 30, 1931), a brief report of which was presented in the September issue of the *JOURNAL*, dealt with various aspects of research into regionalism especially in the Middle West¹ The program was devoted to current applications and developments of the concepts of regionalism, metropolitan area, and metropolitan region in social research and social statistics.

The general topic of the afternoon meeting of August 28 was: "The Metropolitan Area as a Population Unit." Professor R. D. McKenzie of the University of Michigan outlined the processes of population segregation and decentralization within the metropolitan area. Mr. C. E. Batschelet, geographer, the Bureau of the Census, described the way in which the metropolitan area is defined as a unit for the collection and tabulation of census statistics, and presented some interesting facts concerning the shifting distribution of population revealed by the last census. In the evening meeting that day, the discussions were concerned with "The Metropolitan Area as an Economic Unit."

The first address in the morning session of August 29, under the general heading "Communication and the Metropolitan Area," was by Professor R. E. Park of the University of Chicago. He showed the graphically presentable geographic distribution of the circulation of metropolitan newspapers to be a valuable index of the extension of the attitudes and mobility characteristic of the metropolitan area. C. H. Sundberg, official of "The One-Hundred Thousand Group of American Cities," followed with an informing presentation of the activities of this organization and the problems revealed by the information so collected concerning cities of this class

¹The following statement was furnished through the courtesy of H P Hayes, secretary

The afternoon meeting, on "Organization of Life in the Metropolitan Area," opened with Howard W. Green, of the Cleveland Health Council, describing the geographic distribution of cultural, nationality, and economic-level groups in Cleveland, and raising the question of the factors affecting these distributions. Professor E. W. Burgess, of the University of Chicago, then presented some of the findings and conceptualizations of such distributions in Chicago, as elaborated by the department of sociology at that university. Mr. Earl Johnson described some of the present results of his current study of the changing pattern on the Loop district. Mr. W. L. P. Ireland discussed his current research on the changing distribution of certain types of residences in Chicago.

In the evening, a dinner was held, after which there was an informal discussion of the general topic, "Social Research in Regionalism." The attendance averaged about fifty for each meeting. A spot map of the residences of the persons attending would be bounded by a rectangle extending from Seattle to London to Alabama to Texas, and would show a considerable scattering converging to Chicago.

BOOK REVIEWS

Problems in Public School Administration, by OSCAR F. WEBER. New York: The Century Company, 1930, 726 pages.

The author of this discriminating text has produced a practical book that will be of real value to school administrators and to students who look forward to becoming public-school executives.

The choice of problems shows a thorough familiarity with the many issues that confront the present-day school superintendent. The treatment is vigorous, clear, and thoroughly human. Moreover, for the student taking a general course in administration, there is presented in the twenty-seven chapters of this dynamic book an overview of a field of professional endeavor which may later be cultivated through specialized courses in the administration of particular phases and aspects of education.

According to the plan suggested by the author the student is required to analyze each problem for himself, and after relating his analysis to the informational material of the text, to consult significant literature, and finally to evaluate his findings in the light of his particular task. Thus he does without the hazards of an actual decision, to be followed by executive action. Such a plan has not led to any suggestion of artificiality or finality in the treatment of situations. It has rather emphasized the fact that every attempt at a solution of a problem raises other and further inquiries. Furthermore, it does not appear to the reviewer that such a method of study would tend to weaken the executive when the time came in actual experience for him to act and to accept responsibility for his decision. His action would not be an emotional one.

The business aspects of the superintendent's work have been given the major emphasis since, excluding the largest school systems, this aspect of a superintendent's task is pressing. The school budget is shown to be an essential in good management, and that it does not exist as a prop to an accounting procedure.

This book is a welcome contribution to a rapidly developing literature in school administration.

A. B. MEREDITH

Background of International Relations, by CHARLES HODGES. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1931, 743 pages.

The reviewer is constrained, at the outset, to admit that he has not read *in toto* the seven hundred and forty-three pages of this remark-

able book. The sampling process in which he has indulged does convince him, however, that he would greatly profit by so doing. *Background of International Relations* sounds technical. It sounds as dry as "statistics." One familiar with Professor Hodges's excellent charts and maps of world affairs, which have been appearing in the press for a half a dozen years, might be justified in expecting a continuation of that sort of thing. The book, however, is a complete surprise. It is the lucid, intriguing story of the "backgrounds of human relations" in a broad social sense, as seen by a political scientist. Yet it is not political science. It is social science. Politics, economics, sociology, and even history are brought together to round out the picture. Whatever the representatives of any of the above fields may think of the book, it is a definite contribution in a much needed direction; that of the coordination and unification of the social sciences.

CLARENCE G. DITTMER

Safety Education, by IDABELLE STEVENSON New York:
A. S. Barnes Company, 1931, 148 pages.

The problems of accident prevention and health education have loomed large in the discussions of educators in recent years. The growing menace of accidents in the United States, and especially accidents in the home and upon the streets, have aroused the interest of educators and much has been written about safety education since the presentation of the original, comprehensive plan following the experimental program in the St. Louis schools and the presentation of the first handbook for teachers in 1919 on education in accident prevention.¹

The most recent of these publications coming to my attention is the one under review. This book is designed as a handbook for teachers and includes ten chapters in which are presented the conventional topics relating to safety in the schools.

Unfortunately the book is an inadequate summary of what has been extensively presented in other publications and, moreover, it has defects which would produce harm if its recommendations were followed too literally. These defects appear most marked in the chapter dealing with student safety organization and in the chapter dealing with safety patrols. In the chapter on organization the author outlines a stereotyped form of organization, even presenting a constitution including requirements for members' insignia and the like. This certainly leaves nothing to the imagination or the initiative of the progressive teacher who undoubtedly knows more about such matters than the writer.

The leaders of twentieth-century education have sought to avoid just such formality and little progress is likely to be made by an attempt to revive nineteenth-century procedure.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

¹*Education in Accident Prevention*, by E. GEORGE PAYNE (New York: Lyons and Carnahan, 1929), 176 pages.

Personality in Its Teens, by W. RYLAND BOORMAN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, xv+268 pages.

This practical book on boyology was written by a man who has had considerable intimate contact with boys of the teen age. It represents the fruit of an investigation into the psychology and sociology of the high-school boy. Letters were written to one thousand boys. These boys were asked to write letters dealing with some of their personal experiences. For a period of two years a correspondence was kept up between Mr. Boorman and about one hundred of these boys. The boys were urged to deal with their intimate and personal affairs in a frank and natural manner. Twenty complete series of letters written by twenty of these boys formed the basis of this study. The data secured were subjected to analysis and discussed in this volume.

The author answers such questions as. How does the boy feel about his home and his family? How does he react to his teachers? What are his ambitions and ideals? What kind of companions does he have? How does he choose his friends? What is his attitude towards girls? What part do athletics play in his life? How does he respond to religion? What is his moral code? How is he influenced in choosing a vocation?

This book will be of considerable practical value, both to other students in this field and particularly to parents and laymen who come into contact with boys.

CHARLES E SKINNER

Your Son and Mine, by JOHN T. MCGOVERN. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1931, xxi+185 pages.

Your Son and Mine is a practical discussion of a variety of college-student problems from the standpoint of the layman. Many of the topics have been discussed in faculty meetings and various educational gatherings of college and university teachers and administrators. Actual or possible situations are discussed and principles developed from such discussions.

Howard J. Savage says this thesis is probably "that some boys, perhaps fewer boys, will benefit from college, and some will not, from demand upon the capacities, inclinations, and strength of purpose of the individual boy, then, to the wise parent, all that really matters is that the youngster shall have the chance to work out his own destiny, by means of college or not, in helpfulness and human usefulness, and that, contrary to the general superstition, the best rewards of life are not reserved exclusively for the bachelor of arts."

This book could be read, not without profit, by both college executives and parents of high-school and college students.

CHARLES E SKINNER

The Changing Educational World 1905-1930. Papers read on the occasion of the 25th Anniversary of the College of Education of the University of Minnesota, edited by ALVIN C EURICH. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1931.

Professor Monroe tells us that the first professorship for college instruction in professional education was projected at New York University ninety-nine years ago, and the first "school of pedagogy" on a professional plane established there in 1890. Brown University instituted such instruction about 1853, then Antioch a few years later, and in 1873 the University of Iowa; with the University of Michigan following in 1879.

This collection of papers comprises a symposium upon the achievements of this new type of professional school over a period of a quarter of a century. The scope of the papers extends, however, beyond the confines of merely professional problems affecting schools of education. Stuart Chase deals with "Men and Machines"; President Lindley with the "Revival of Personality"; Dr. Paul Dengler of Vienna with "Forces Behind Education in Europe," and Dr. Albert B. Meredith with "Vocational Education in an Industrial State." William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, in a discussion of "New Problems in Education" presents some very challenging problems for educators to solve. Fletcher Harper Swift of the University of California arouses one's interest in a discussion of "The Increasing Professionalization of Educational Workers." And so the volume goes—a series of papers, few of which are dull and most of which are well worth reading not only by educational folk but by the general reader who, these days, seems to like to read and talk about education. The editor, Dr. Eurich, presents at the end of the volume a record of the research in education accomplished by faculty members and graduate students at the University of Minnesota in recent years. Those skeptical about the value of research in education might well scan these titles and perchance take a random sampling for personal perusal. It is significant that the University has been able to secure the cooperation of so large a percentage of its arts faculty in research upon educational problems.

J. O. CREAHER

Survey of College Entrance Credits and College Courses in Music. New York: National Bureau for the Advancement of Music, 1930, vi+209 pages.

There has been a lack of dissemination of accurate information on subjects accepted by the various colleges and universities for admission. Parents, teachers, and principals of schools—all who advise young folks preparing for college—have needed such information. Colleges

are so numerous, so alike in their general procedure, and yet different in certain details, that it is often a paramount issue as to whether John or Mary goes to College Tweedledee or College Tweedledum. If the credits a student has to offer do not exactly fit the requirements of Tweedledee, they may work in Tweedledum and a most unsentimental yet happy solution follows.

It is therefore a valuable as well as a consoling piece of research which undertakes to answer this often momentous question for the whole American domain for a single subject such as music. This recent survey of 594 institutions was made under the auspices of the research council of the music supervisors national conference and was made possible by an appropriation from the Carnegie Corporation. The leading conclusions are that an increasingly liberal attitude towards music, as a branch of study worthy of university credit, is found, 76 of the institutions accept music for entrance, while more than three quarters offer musical instruction, for every college which does not grant credit in music there is an institution of equal standing which does, nine out of ten colleges allow the student to do some work in music towards his degree; the colleges of the Middle West and Far West exhibit a more progressive attitude towards music than do those of the East and South; of 50 land-grant colleges, all but six accept entrance credit for music as contrasted with sixteen of the private institutions.

As pointed out by Peter W. Dykema, professor of music education at Teachers College, Columbia University, this new attitude of the colleges will tend to stimulate the study of music in the secondary schools.

The volume is so edited that parents and principals may easily ascertain what any given institution will do concerning credit for music, either for entrance or after entrance, towards a degree. Here truly hath research robbed the serpent of his sting.

J. O. CREAGER

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Tentative Program for the February Meeting of the Educational Sociology Section with the National Association of College Teachers of Education at the Time of the Annual Session of the Department of Superintendence at Washington, February, 1932

The Tuesday Morning Meeting

1. "The Status and Scope of Educational Sociology in Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, and College and University Departments of Education."

Professor Gray Truitt, Adelphi College

2. "The Subject Matter of the Basic Course in Educational Sociology."

Professor Wray H. Congdon, University of Michigan.

Professor Charles L. Anspach, Michigan State Normal College

3. Discussion

The Luncheon Meeting

"Education for the Control of Narcotics."

Dr. E. George Payne, New York University.

Discussion led by Mr. Julian L. Archer, State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois

A New College in 1932

Teachers College, Columbia University, announces a plan for a new type of teacher-training institution to open September, 1932. It will operate as an undergraduate unit at the college level.

This new college, to be under the direction of Dr. Thomas Alexander, professor of education, Teachers College, will attempt to demonstrate radically different methods in the selection and training of young men and women who are to become teachers in nursery, elementary, and secondary schools. While preparing these young people for teaching positions the new unit, which will grant the bachelor of science and the master's degrees, will operate also as a demonstration college in which graduate students in Teachers College may observe improved methods in teacher training.

The World Federation of Education Associations Met at Denver in July¹

They were a zealous, a devout group, the four thousand men and women who came out of many lands to attend this educational conclave. There was a wonderful spirit manifest in every phase of the meeting. It was a spiritual spirit, it combined the human values taught by all the great teachers—Buddha, Confucius, Mohammed, Zoroaster, and Christ. They came that they might find a way to bring about a better understanding among the nations. They knew

¹The following statement was furnished by A. O. Thomas, president

that complete appreciation of nations and races must come through the training of the unprejudiced young and that it is a case of coöperation or calamity. They believe that education is the instrument which will dethrone the cruel god Mars and enthrone the Prince of Peace in the hearts of men.

The conference was characterized by five main features:

1 By a great program. Both the sections and the general meetings were well planned and elicited fine attention. The program contained subjects of human values to give richness to the practical and technical themes engaging the attention of the divisions. Such themes as (1) international understanding through service, (2) interpretation of national life as a means to understanding, (3) methods peculiarly adapted to the promotion of mutual appreciation among nations, (4) national life and the new world order, (5) the relation of labor, education, trade and commerce, diplomacy to international good will were intelligently and forcibly presented.

2. Great speakers were on the platform. Messages were presented by leading educators from all parts of the civilized world. The presidents of most of the great national educational bodies were heard. The list included such masters of education as Miss Florence M. Hale, the brilliant and popular president of the National Education Association; the matchless Willis A. Sutton, whose leadership during the last year was like a benediction to the profession; Mr. Angus Roberts, the dynamic personality who presides over the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales, Dr. P. Seshadri of the country-wide organization of India, with the culture of thousands of years depicted in voice and manner, Count Hayashi, cultured, kindly intellectual, of the Japanese Imperial Education Association; Robert Neilly of the Irish Teachers Organization; R. B. Miller of the Educational Institute of Scotland. All brought the message of progress and understanding from the four quarters of the earth. Besides these were such outstanding personalities as Loftus H. Reed representing the Board of Education of Toronto, Canada, Georges Milsom of Paris, Senora Inez Fabrego de Prieto of Panama Normal School, Gabino Palma of the University of Mexico, Deputy Bess Goodycoontz of the Federal Office of Education, Victor Olander, secretary of the Illinois Federation of Labor, Rufus von Kleinsmid, president of the University of Southern California, Paul Monroe, director of the International Institute of Education, and Dr. E. A. Ross, noted sociologist. There were many others who lent color, interest, and charm to the various programs. Nowhere else could be found so many illustrious sons and daughters of the teaching world, and few programs have ever been assembled of such importance.

3. A spirit of earnestness. It was a purpose meeting and such gatherings always know where they are going. It was not an aimless talkfest. The whole of the scheme clustered about the theme of "world citizenship." It was not a few strands of disconnected conferences but a chain, each department forming a link with the whole chain attached to the anchor of faith in a higher civilization which will teach

the peoples of the world science of understanding and the art of living together.

4. The resolutions constitute a program. In the delegate assembly were brought together in summation the maturities of the several committees and divisions. The Herman-Jordan committees matured their programs and put them in shape for editing and printing as a contribution to international understanding and good will. Time will not permit a complete summary of these resolutions. Only a few can be mentioned. First, as vitally important, the teacher-training division recommends the careful training of teachers for the new international point of view, the study of comparative education not only in normal schools and colleges but in summer schools for teachers. Second, the federation recommends that governments make provision for the freer exchange of teachers and pupils, that correspondence and publications between schools be extended, that adequate time be given to the study of modern languages in order to facilitate intercommunication and understanding. Third, that a program of universal education be undertaken as a stabilizing force and that illiteracy be wiped out among the nations as rapidly as it can be done, that the radio be speeded up as a means of quickening adult education. Fourth, parent education and the promotion of the work of school health be encouraged.

5. Local hospitality. Nothing could have been finer than the courtesies of the Denver people. The visitors were made to feel at home in a friendly city that knows how to entertain the stranger within its gate.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Mrs. Iva Pasco Bennett is a native of New York State. She is a graduate of Geneseo State Normal School, Geneseo, New York, and received her Sc.B degree from the New York State College of Home Economics at Cornell University in 1926. Since that time she has been assistant supervisor of health education in the public schools of Syracuse, New York.

Dr Iago Galdston, a trained physician, who became more interested in the teaching and public aspect of the medical service, at present maintains the following educational relationships: lecturer on educational sociology in the School of Education, New York University, lecturer on public health at the New York Homeopathic Medical College and Flower Hospital, special lecturer on health education at the New York Training School for Teachers, professor of social and public health, Fordham University; Fellow of the American Public Health Association

Miss Ethel A Grosscup since the first of January this year has been adviser in field service for the Child Health Education Service of the National Tuberculosis Association. Previous to her joining the National staff she was for two years adviser of child-health instruction for the New York State Committee on Tuberculosis and Public Health. She is a graduate of Goucher College and of the New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics. She has done graduate work in health education at Columbia University and New York University and has received her master's degree from the latter institution. In 1924-1928 she was assistant State director of physical training and hygiene in the State Department of Public Instruction in New Jersey.

Dr. Grace M Kahrs is now medical director of the New Jersey State Normal School at Jersey City. She received her M.D. from New York Medical College and Hospital for Women, and has done graduate study at Harvard University School of Medicine and at the School of Education, New York University. Dr Kahrs is associated with the Health Education Department of the New York City Department of Health and lectures on health education and hygiene at numerous educational institutions. She is a member of the American Medical Association, New York State and County Medical Societies, New Jersey State Medical Society, and American Public Health Association.

Mrs Nellie N McNeill is a native Missourian. She has been a primary teacher in the St. Joseph Public Schools for several years and is at present first-grade teacher in the Humbolt Platoon School in St. Joseph. Mrs McNeill is working for a degree in the School of Education, New York University.

Dr Earl E Muntz, professor of economics in the School of Commerce of New York University, received his A.B. degree from Baldwin

College and his A.M. and Ph.D. degrees from Yale University with graduate specialization in sociology and economics. Dr. Muntz was professor of sociology in Hobart College from 1921 to 1922, instructor in economics and social institutions in Princeton University from 1922 to 1925, and for the last six years has been connected with New York University. Aside from being professor of economics in the School of Commerce, Dr. Muntz is in charge of all the sociology offered in that school. Dr. Muntz is the author of *Race Contact* and various articles. At present, he is engaged in a survey of hospital facilities and costs in New York City.

Harold S. Tuttle, associate professor of education at the University of Oregon, is a native of Minnesota. His undergraduate work was done at the College of the Pacific, his graduate work at the University of California. Besides teaching in the field of education he has taken an active part in the movement for vocation and weekday religious education, and for character education in the public schools. Recent articles in educational journals have stressed the need of greater emphasis on personality culture in the public schools. The Abingdon Press has just published his monograph entitled *Character Education by Church and State*.

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EDITORIAL

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY from its inception has sought to emphasize at all times the necessity of the scientific approach to the study of sociology. While it has not always been able to live up to its highest ideals it has kept constantly in mind the point of view held in the beginning. There is still, however, too much material submitted to THE JOURNAL for publication which is nothing more or less than a philosophical essay dealing with some aspect of the social life.

We are in need today, as never before, of saying things in sociology with data. This statement is not meant to discount the importance of the discussion of points of view but if we are going to build up a science of educational sociology we must devote our interests at the present time mainly to the gathering of data, its classification, and the discovery of principles relating to the specific aspects of the social life. This need has been felt in every new science and perhaps it is nowhere more felt than in the field of educational sociology.

A STUDY OF THE OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES OF HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS

ADA E. ORR and FRANCIS J. BROWN

Youth, today as always, is under fire. Many who are beginning to gray about the temples look upon the youth of the present with apprehension and grave misgivings. The chief concern of these critics of youth is the manner in which they use their leisure time, asserting that they spend their nights in a gay round of petting parties and their days in recuperating and planning for the next "debauch."

To determine, in so far as possible, what our young people do with their free time, this study was made of the out-of-school activities of two hundred girls in a New York City high school. Although no attempt was made to evaluate the nature of each activity, for example, the type of books read, the study does shed some light on the degree of validity of the statements of the critics.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

The questionnaire, reproduced in part on page 267, was prepared and given to two hundred girls in the ninth and tenth grades, in high school. To avoid the possibility of a selective factor, as well as to determine any differences which might exist, the group included one hundred from each of the academic and commercial courses. A part of the regular health-education periods was used to explain and conduct the experiment. The classroom teacher gave a copy of the questionnaire to each girl and briefly explained the nature of the study. The girls were asked not to sign their names and to be absolutely honest, as their individual tabulations would be entirely unknown to any one connected with the school. Every effort was also made to avoid any element of the unusual. The girls entered into the experiment with an interest and enthusiasm which led the classroom teacher and the experimenters

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to believe that the results were, for the most part, both honest and accurate. Although the activities of only one week were studied, all of the students who answered the question "How does this period differ from any other normal week?" used such phrases as "none," "very little," "not much." It was apparently a typical week, and as such, a fair cross section of their out-of-school program.

All tabulations were made separately for the academic and commercial groups.

FORM OF QUESTIONNAIRE ACTIVITY ANALYSIS OF SENIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS

Activities	Time Spent (in Hours)																Total
	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
1 Home Study																	
2 School Organization																	
3 Cultural Recreational																	
Books (not lessons)																	
Magazines																	
Newspapers																	
Movies																	
Theater																	
Radio																	
Table Games																	
Motoring																	
4 Social																	
5 Routine																	
6 Incidental																	
7 Religious																	
8 Outside Work																	

QUESTION How does this period differ from any other normal week?
Add under the proper heading any activity you have engaged in which was not listed

Each main division other than 1, home study, was itemized in the same way as item 3 above and spaces left under each for additional items. The following activities were listed under the main captions: 2 School Organization: athletics, music, dramatics, committee, girl scout, girl reserve, camp-fire girl, 4. Social: formal function, dancing, dating (at home), writing letters; 5. Routine: sleep (hours), keep own room, do other home duties, 6. Incidental: shopping, sewing, illness, purposeless activity

(loafing); 7. Religious: church service, Sunday school, choir, church society, personal devotions; 8 Outside Work: care of children, other work for pay.

RESULTS

The age range of the students shows the commercial group somewhat older than the academic. The range of the latter was from twelve to seventeen years with a mean of fourteen years seven months, the former thirteen to eighteen with a mean of fifteen years no months. This difference is too slight, however, to affect seriously the results obtained, and certainly cannot be taken as an explanation of the differences in the two groups in the rest of the study.

TABLE I
NUMBER OF STUDENTS AND AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT DAILY IN HOME STUDY

Group	Number								Ass.
	None	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	$3\frac{1}{2}$	
Academic	4	4	25	23	21	14	4	2	1 62
Commercial	8	31	19	18	13	2			1 02
Total ..	12	35	44	41	34	16	4	2	1 13

Although there is a significant difference in the amount of homework done by the academic and commercial groups, it is important to note that all but four in the academic group and eight in the commercial do homework regularly. The average of an hour and twenty minutes certainly implies that school work is taken rather seriously by these girls.

Due to the wide range of time spent in the remaining activities studied, the following tabulations are given in terms of the number of students participating in each activity rather than the number of hours spent in such activity.

The difference between the academic and commercial groups is very marked in both athletic and music activities. It is probable that the latter may be explained on the basis of differing cultural background, as will be brought out later. A partial explanation of the former may be

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TABLE II
NUMBER OF STUDENTS GIVING OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME TO SCHOOL ORGANIZATION ACTIVITIES¹

Group	Activity				
	Athletics	Music	Dramatics	Committee	Clubs
Academic	50	39	10	2	46
Commercial	27	22	11	0	46
Total	77	61	21	2	92

the fact (*see* Table VI) that a larger proportion of the commercial group does outside work

It is highly significant, however, that 38.5 per cent of these girls utilized their out-of-school time for athletics, 30.5 per cent for music, 10.5 per cent for dramatic work, and 46 per cent for club activities. The amount of time spent in each activity varied from none to as much as 10 hours a week.

TABLE III
NUMBER OF STUDENTS GIVING OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME TO CULTURAL RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Group	Activity						
	Books	Magazines	News-papers	Movies	Theater	Radio	Games
Academic	93	77	81	81	18	83	39
Commercial	83	60	68	80	30	62	37
Total	176	137	149	161	78	145	76

There was a very significant relation between the cultural background of the groups, at least as measured by the number of magazines and books in the home, and the reading interests of the two groups. The number of magazines which came into the home regularly varied from none to ten with an average of 3.47 for the academic group, and from none to seven with an average of 2.52 for the commercial. The number of books in the home showed an even greater contrast. For the academic the range was from 50 to 1,200 with an average of 182; for the commercial, the range was from 12 to 450 with an average of only 89. To the degree that these are reliable measures of home background, it is a partial explanation of some of the differences which existed in the two groups

Other activities listed by the students included Hebrew lessons, French lessons, sculpturing, painting, opera, and working

¹Since there were 100 cases in each group in Tables II to VI inclusive, the numbers with the exception of totals, may also be interpreted as per cent

The high percentage of the girls who engage in each of the cultural recreational activities implies that in so far as these interests are directed into wholesome channels they are forceful factors in the enrichment of the lives of youth.

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF STUDENTS GIVING OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME TO SOCIAL
AND INCIDENTAL ACTIVITIES

Group	Social Activity			Incidental		
	Dancing at Home	Dating	Letters	Shopping	Sewing	Loafing
Academic	49	45	57	72	25	30
Commercial	58	30	40	61	30	19
Total . .	107	75	97	133	55	49

TABLE V
NUMBER OF STUDENTS GIVING OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME TO RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES

Group	Activity				
	Church Attendance	Sunday School	Choir	Church Societies	Personal Devotions
Academic	45	36	6	12	24
Commercial	67	26	11	19	15
Total	112	62	17	31	39

Although no attempt was made to compare the percentages of Tables IV and V with similar ones of adult activities, it is probable that the percentage of the girls engaging in each activity would be little different if an unselected group of adults had been studied. Perhaps the most surprising fact is that more than 50 per cent of the students participated in religious activities.

TABLE VI
NUMBER OF STUDENTS WORKING IN THEIR OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME

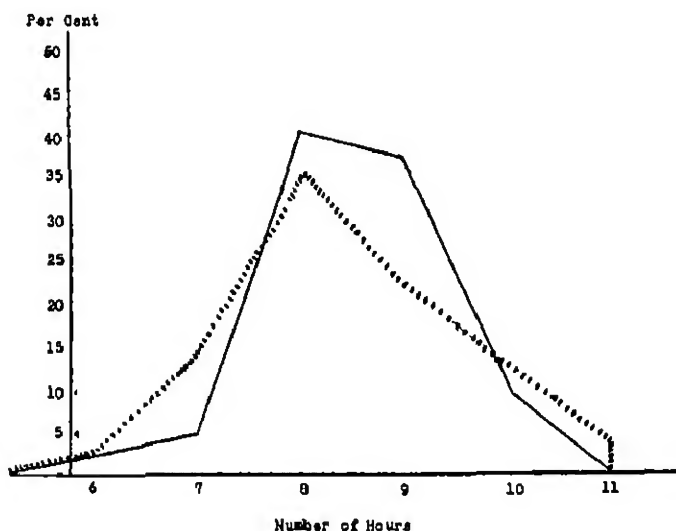
Group	Activity		
	Keep Own Room	Other Home Duties	Work Outside of Home
Academic	34	60	11
Commercial	48	49	21
Total	82	109	32

In the light of the frequent statement that the home has so broken down that youth has no responsibilities, it is interesting to note that 41 per cent of these girls kept their own rooms, 54.5 per cent had other home duties, and 16.5 per cent worked outside of the home.

The facts represented in the graph below indicate that these young people were, on the whole, spending a normal amount of time in sleep. The average for the academic group was 8.57 hours per night, for the commercial 8 24 hours.

GRAPH 1

Per Cent of Students Spending Each Amount of Time in Sleep



SUMMARY

1. The range in the ages of the 200 ninth- and tenth-grade girls showed that the students in the academic group were somewhat younger, the average being fourteen years seven months, while in the commercial group the average was fifteen years no months.

2. The girls in the academic group represented a type of home which apparently had a higher economic and cultural status, if we may judge from the number of books in the home. It was found that the girls who had more books and magazines (*i.e.*, the academic) did more reading than those in whose homes there was less reading material.

3. Ninety-four per cent of the students, including both

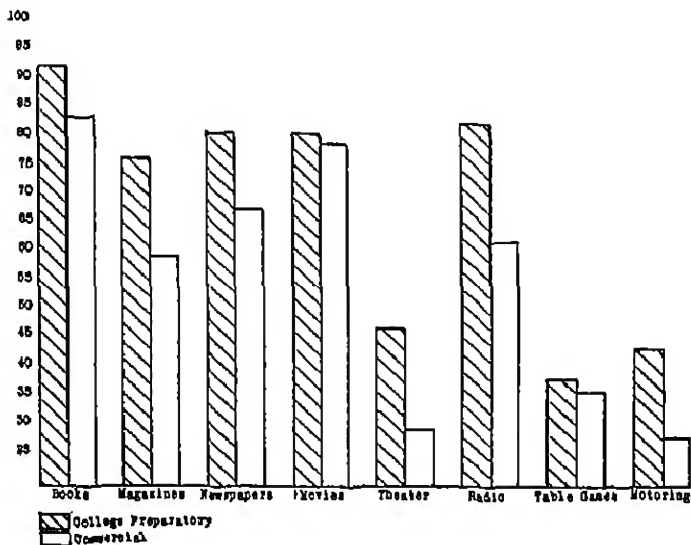
the academic and commercial groups, spent an average of 1.31 hours daily in home study.

4. Although a larger percentage of the academic group gave out-of-school time to school-organization activities than the commercial, from 11 to 46 per cent of both groups engaged regularly in such activities.

5. The academic group likewise excelled the commercial in all forms of cultural recreational activities. However, the students in both groups engaged in these activities, the per cent varying from 39 per cent for the theater to 88 per cent for the reading of books, other than school assignments.

GRAPH 2

Per Cent of Students Giving Out-of-School Time to Cultural Recreational Activities



6. More of the commercial group participated in social dancing than the academic group, a fact which is consistent with the data that a larger percentage of the academic than commercial group have "dates" at home. It is significant, however, that dates at home, letter writing, and

sewing occupied a part of the leisure time of from one fourth to one half of the girls studied.

7. More than half of the girls attended church, and 19.5 per cent maintained personal devotions. It is interesting to note that a larger percentage of the commercial group attended church while a somewhat smaller per cent held personal devotions than was true of the academic students.

8. Forty-one per cent of the 200 girls studied kept their own rooms, more than half, 54.5 per cent, had other home duties while eleven per cent of the academic and twenty-one per cent of the commercial worked outside of the home.

9. An interesting fact from the standpoint of health is that while the girls in the academic group take more time for sleep than the other group, averaging 8.57 hours sleep in comparison to 8.24 for the commercial, both groups average more than the minimum of eight hours a night

CONCLUSION

It is dangerous and unwise to generalize from only 200 cases in a single high school, even though unselected. However, within the limits of this study two significant facts are evident: first, that the girls enrolled in the academic course entered more activities than those girls in the commercial course, and, second, even more significant, the girls in both groups engaged in many worth-while activities.

With the accumulation of further factual studies of this nature, perhaps even the critic will be forced to recant and spend his efforts in directing the activities of youth into more wholesome channels rather than stand aside and "throw the first stone."

THE EFFECT OF THE BROKEN HOME UPON THE CHILD IN SCHOOL¹

MARIAN WENDELN CAMPBELL

There has been a general impression abroad among educators that the broken home has a definite effect upon the child's achievement in school. There has, however, been little attempt to make a scientific investigation of the situation. This report is the result of an effort to study the matter statistically.

The broken home was defined as any home where both parents were not living together with the child in a normal family relationship. The break might be due to death, divorce, desertion, or any other cause. At times, children from the homes of divorcées alone were studied, but where such was the case, the fact was so stated.

If an abnormal home relationship has a permanent effect upon the child's ability to do his work in school, this should be seen when the achievement quotients of children from such an environment are compared with the achievement quotients of children coming from a normal home relationship. Two surveys were made in the same school system to determine whether or not the child's achievement is lower if he comes from a broken home.

Statistics were compiled on all cases of boys in the seventh-grade classes of a junior high school who came from English-speaking homes. Children of foreign or colored parentage were eliminated from the study, because the handicap of such an environment would be likely to affect the achievement. All boys were chosen for the study whose permanent record cards indicated that they were not living with both parents, or whose surnames were different from those of the parents. Accordingly, some of the boys having stepmothers were undoubtedly overlooked, although in some

¹This investigation was made under the direction of A. A. Douglass

cases this was indicated on the record card. Homes in which there was a step-parent were included under the classification of broken homes because sociologists apparently consider them as coming under that category.

Of 185 homes represented, 34 proved to be broken homes. The intelligence quotients, educational quotients, and chronological ages of all these boys were available from the records of tests previously given. The average educational and intelligence quotients of the group of 151 boys from normal home relationships were determined and from these the average achievement quotient for the group was derived, using the formula $\frac{E.Q.}{I.Q.} = A.Q.$ The same procedure was followed with the group of 34 from broken homes. A comparison of the average A.Q. of this group with the average A.Q. of the group from normal homes revealed that the latter surpassed the former by .4 only.

Normal-home group. Average I.Q. 104.2

Average E.Q. 96.7

Average A.Q. 92.8

Broken-home group: Average I.Q. 102.2

Average E.Q. 94.4

Average A.Q. 92.4

The boys in the broken-home group were then paired with boys from the normal group according to chronological age, I.Q., and roughly, according to home conditions. That is, the assistant principal of the junior high school passed upon the home conditions of the paired cases, so that in no instance was a home of very high caliber paired with a poverty stricken home. In pairing the boys it is to be conceded that a more reliable basis of comparison is approximated, because certain variations which may cause differences in achievement are eliminated. The average I.Q.'s, E.Q.'s, and A.Q.'s of the control group of 34 were calculated, as in the groups above. The results were as indicated on page 276

Paired Groups²

Normal-home group:	Average I Q.	102.1
	Average E.Q.	98.1
	Average A.Q.	96.1
Broken-home group:	Average I Q.	102.2
	Average E Q.	94.4
	Average A Q.	92.4

In this case, the average A.Q. of the group from normal homes surpassed the average A.Q. of the group from broken homes by 3.7. This difference may not be considered as significant. At least we cannot say that such a difference would indicate that the broken home has an effect upon the child's achievement in school; rather it appears that it has little such effect.

Next a study was made of the achievement of children coming from broken homes in the various sixth grades of the same city. Sixty children were reported upon by teachers as coming from broken homes. Eighty-seven cases, taken at random from the records of the same schools, formed the control group. They were compared as follows

Normal-home group:	Average I.Q.	103.3
	Average E.Q.	104.8
	Average A.Q.	101.5
Broken-home group:	Average I.Q.	100.5
	Average E Q.	103.0
	Average A.Q.	102.5

In this study, the broken-home group proved to have an average A.Q. exactly one point higher than that of the normal-home group. No effort was made to pair these children which may partly account for the discrepancy

Of the cases coming from broken homes, 27 were sifted out, coming from homes where there was divorce or separation. The results are shown as follows:

Group from homes where there was separation or divorce is given on page 277.

²Detailed tables of data on paired groups are not given due to lack of space

Average I.Q. 100.0

Average E.Q. 104.3

Average A.Q. 104.3

This gave an average A.Q. for the group of children from the homes of divorcées which was 1.8 points higher than that of the broken-home group as a whole, and 2.8 points higher than that of the control group. Hence, it may be pointed out that the school achievement of the child coming from a broken home of any type whatever apparently is not permanently affected by that fact.

It is to be taken for granted that there are factors other than the broken home which may affect the child's achievement. These may be either emotional or physical and may originate within the school or without. It is impossible to eliminate these factors from the statistics, just as it is impossible to eliminate them from the life of any one individual and to say: "This child is the direct product of a broken home."

However, the large percentage of problem children coming from broken homes, as shown in surveys from various parts of the country, indicates that there may be a relationship between the broken home and conduct disorders. Reform-school statistics will bear out this assumption. It is also confirmed by the findings of the writer in a study of 29 cases of problem girls reported upon in detail in the records of the attendance department of the public schools of a large city. Of the number, 59 per cent came from broken homes. In an additional 21 per cent of the cases, the mothers of the girls were working. The attendance supervisor from another school system of some size reported that in her estimation the home from which the mother departs early in the morning to work for the major part of the day is practically the equivalent of the broken home. If we consider this as a factor, then 80 per cent of these girls come from an abnormal home situation.

Each of the 29 cases was a behavior problem. All but

two were classified as educational problems also, and upon these two no academic reports were made. The range of intelligence quotients of these children tells a part of the story. Eleven of them tested below 90; six from 90 to 110; and seven from 111 to 142. In five cases the I.Q. was not given. The largest group was below average intelligence, but it is interesting to note that the next largest group was above average intelligence. Of the seven with an I.Q. higher than 110, all were doing poorly in school work. A part of the blame for the failure of such children may be laid at the door of the school itself, but in every case here home conditions may be pointed to as having a powerful influence.

The superintendent of a "Junior Republic" reported to the writer that between 80 and 90 per cent of the boys in his school came from broken homes. Of 1,000 girls who were committed to the State Reform School in Eastern Pennsylvania over a five-year period, only 87 came from families in which both father and mother were living in a normal relationship to each other and to society.^a Statistics might be quoted at length to the same purpose. The fact that so large a proportion of institutional cases comes from broken homes indicates a direct relationship between the broken home and conduct disorders.

The writer also investigated a group of 64 children in a school which is being run as a philanthropic enterprise. Results indicate that it is possible for achievement in school to be affected when the child is under the stress of a broken-home situation, but that improvement is likely when the normal home atmosphere is restored. The children in this institution live in small, attractive cottages under the loving care of educated and refined housemothers, and of a headmaster who calls each boy "son" and is never too busy to be interested in the immediate needs or desires of the individual youngster. Of the 64 boys living here, all but one come from broken homes. A survey was made to

^aE. A. Ross, *Civic Sociology* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Company, 1925), p. 107-108.

determine the educational rating of each child both before and after coming to the school. More than three fifths of these boys have shown improvement in school work after adjustment was made to the institution. Of the 64 pupils, 24 showed no reaction either up or down. Most of these were already doing average work. A few were doing good work in their previous environment, and are continuing to do the same. Only four are in the D or F class, and these four are of sufficiently low I.Q. to justify such marks in any institution. Of the 40 whose work has come up, a number have shown marked improvement. In some instances it was phenomenal. Case studies were made of 13 of the boys, and these showed even more convincingly than the statistics the importance of the home atmosphere in improvement in attitude, emotional control, conduct, etc. In every instance (with one exception) the child had been under stress due to a broken-home situation immediately before coming to the school. In 62 per cent of the cases, after adjustment was made to the new home, school work improved.

School marks, which are more or less unreliable as criteria, were used as the standard of measurement in the improvement of the 40 boys in this institution. But the records are at least indicative. Attention may be called to the fact that since the children came from a variety of schools, it is unlikely that the standards were higher in the original school than in the new home school in every case. Also, two of the children who are showing the greatest improvement are in the public schools of the vicinity and are being graded by different public-school teachers, which may discredit the idea that the home school marks unusually high.

Other factors which were linked up with the broken-home situation undoubtedly influenced the lives of these boys. However, the fact that 62 per cent of them showed improvement in school work when restored to the equivalent of a normal home atmosphere indicates that the boys were

not living up to their possibilities in their previous surroundings and that the broken home may have a deleterious effect upon school work.

An entirely different aspect of this investigation seems to indicate that the child is not influenced academically by the broken-home situation, at least not after the acute point of the situation has been passed.

The assistant principal of a junior high school made an investigation of the permanent record cards of the 600 girls in her school, sifting out those coming from the homes of divorcées. Twenty-seven such cases were discovered. Cases of desertion and separation were included in the same category because, for the purposes of this study, conditions were the same as in divorce. Desertion is called "poor man's divorce" by social workers.

All of the 27 girls were interviewed. Information was gathered to show occupation of parent, number of years separated, and home conditions. Estimates of character and of school attitude were made, and marks or school achievement were recorded.⁴ At the time of this study, only three of the 27 were reported as conduct problems and four as educational problems. The tables compiled as a result of this investigation indicate little correlation between divorce and conduct disorders or school achievement of the child in question. It should be pointed out however, that all ratings here, except the educational, are merely personal ratings by the assistant principal, and that she may have overestimated conditions in some instances.

It is interesting too, to note that the separation of the parents in every case in this study was one of long standing. The shortest was over a period of three years. Two cases came in this classification. There were two cases of four years duration, and the rest were five years or more. Fourteen cases, or more than half, existed over a period of nine years or more. The study of these girls presents a direct contrast to the study of boys in the home school

⁴Tables giving the report on these girls are available, but are not given in full, due to lack of space.

reported upon above. The fact that every child in that school had been under stress immediately before being brought to the school may have something to do with the situation. It is possible that the child may make an adjustment to the broken home, after the period of stress is over. It is apparent that this is what has happened in the cases of the survey of girls from the homes of divorcées, although we cannot be sure that the child was affected by the divorce or separation even at the time of the break.

The conclusions drawn from this group of studies may be summed up as follows:

1. As a result of the statistical study of the achievement quotients of children in the sixth and seventh grades, we may say that the broken home appears to have no effect upon the child's achievement in school when achievement is regarded as accomplishment over a period of years.

2. From the study of a group of problem cases in a large city system, we may say that there apparently is some correlation between the broken home and conduct disorders.

3. The study of 64 cases of boys in the home school seems to indicate that although the school work of a child may be affected by the broken-home situation while he is under stress, he is likely to recover when the stress is removed.

4. The survey of 27 girls from the homes of divorcées where the separation had been of long standing indicates that the average child is not affected by the broken home either in conduct or school achievement after the period of stress is passed.

BREADTH OF VIEW AS THE AIM OF EDUCATION

J. STANLEY GRAY

I

Scientific experiment has shown that when a paramecium comes into contact with acid-laden water, it will turn about and quickly swim the other way. The reason is that the acid water is irritating and painful. It stimulates the pain receptors causing the paramecium to have feelings of annoyance. But now the question arises, Why should a paramecium want to avoid feelings of annoyance? Why should living tissue try to escape pain and experience pleasure? Why do not some animals respond positively instead of negatively to pain stimuli? Perhaps in the most elemental forms of life there are protoplasmic entities which make approach responses to pain stimuli. But the result is that they are quickly exterminated by those stimulating forces. It is a law of nature that only those animals survive which are so equipped as to respond negatively to pain-producing stimuli. Animals avoid pain, then, in order to preserve life. Survival seems to be the chief end in life. When it is not, the animal soon perishes.

Another perplexing question seems to arise at this point. Why is it, in what seems to be the highest levels of life, that some individuals willingly sacrifice themselves for the welfare of others? In war, self-survival is a vice rather than a virtue. Certainly self-survival cannot always be the chief end in life. The answer is that self-survival is the chief end in life only in certain forms of life. On certain levels of life, and under certain conditions, group survival becomes paramount. We find the mother cat sacrificing herself for her kittens; an Australian bushman sacrificing himself for his tribe; an American soldier sacrificing himself for his nation; a religious missionary sacrificing himself for unfortunate people; a dog sacri-

ficing himself for his master. In other words, group survival seems to be the highest end in life. It is a less primitive end than self-survival. Progress seems to be in the direction of group survival rather than self-survival.

II

Group survival is just another way of saying environmental adjustment. Those groups survive most easily that adjust to their environment most efficiently. The history of evolution reveals that those individuals and groups which have the greatest sensory range also have the greatest power of environmental adjustment. The sensory range of a group of individuals is increased by (1) individual variation and (2) coöperation so that the specialized sense of each individual may be used by the entire group.

Let us illustrate by an imagined example from primitive life. Here is a group of five Kongo head hunters. Each one excels the others in a special sense—one in hearing, one in sight, one in smell, one in taste, one in feeling. As they travel about the jungle together, the one who can see best warns the others of an approaching lion long before they are able to see it. The one who can hear best detects a coming herd of elephants and warns the others so they can hide and escape danger. The one who excels in taste prevents the others from eating poisonous food. The tactual specialist can tell by the feel of the air that a storm is approaching and they all prepare for it. The one who can smell best often detects the presence of animals that can be neither seen nor heard. And so the group continues to live in the jungle and survive because five specialists coöperating are able to adjust to all the dangers and problems of their environment.

Let us suppose now that they cease to cooperate. How long could any of them survive without the others? Let us suppose that all become normal in their sensory range. How long could they survive? It is only by specializing and then coöperating that they are able to withstand the dangers that they must face in order to survive.

On the higher levels of life, the individual not only adjusts himself to his environment but he reconstructs his environment so that it is adjusted to him. By gaining control over environment he is able not just merely to survive but he is able to build a civilization and leave a social heritage. In this respect the *Homo sapiens* has made enormous progress. It has been little more than three thousand years since man began to specialize and cooperate to the degree that gave him power to go beyond mere environmental adjustment and control that environment. Mere survival is now hardly a problem at all. Modern civilization has made it possible for a very inferior individual to survive. "A being that can construct its own environment is no longer subject to the tyranny of the environment."¹ The problem of modern man is not survival, but greater control over environment, or in other words, a more highly developed civilization. However, the method of attaining this is no different from the method of survival—individual specialization plus maximum coöperation for the mutual benefit of all. This is the law of survival in the lower animal world and the law of civilization in the higher animal world.

Let us notice some of the implications of this position. Specialization always means the division of labor. The greater the specialization, the greater the labor division. Division of labor always means greater dependence on others. The greater the division, the greater the dependence. Dependence on others means the absolute necessity for cooperation. Lack of cooperation leads to friction, war, and final extermination. The greater the interdependence, the greater the need for cooperation. Cooperation always means that a mutual understanding is necessary. The Kongo head hunters could coöperate only to the extent that (1) they understood each other's specialty, and to the extent that (2) they understood the relation of each specialty to their common problem of survival.

¹B. H. Bode, *Fundamentals of Education*, Modern Teacher's Series (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1921), p. 239.

We are now ready to state our thesis. Conditions for the optimum progress of civilization exist when (1) each individual is most highly specialized, (2) when each individual understands and appreciates the problems of other specialists, and (3) when he understands and appreciates the relationship of each specialty to the major problem of gaining greater and greater control over environment

III

Individual specialization (which is not only necessary but inevitable) leads naturally to narrow and limited interests. Interest is largely a matter of conditioning or training, and if the individual is trained exclusively in one field of specialization, his interests will naturally be limited to that field. The automobile specialist is almost constantly in the environment of his specialty. He comes in contact only with automobiles and his world extends no further. Even when he is forced to come in contact with outside interests, he thinks of them only as they relate to automobiles. His specialty has narrowed his interest to that particular field.

There are several reasons for these conditions. First, there is so much competition that the specialist must stay on the job in order that he and his specialty may survive. It is only a Ford or an Edison or a Wells who is so far beyond his competitors that he can take time off to "broaden out." But even in the higher specialties competition is often so keen that the specialist is not broad-minded. Few, even great specialists, have a wide "appreciative understanding" of other specialties.

Second, our educational system is so inefficient in specialized fields that graduates must spend long hours in learning, by the slow trial-and-error method, what could have been learned in school. As a result our specialists lose even what outside interests they may have already developed. Constant attention to the field of specialty (often necessitated by inefficient schooling), in order to survive as a specialist, narrows the individual more and

more as time goes on. When our vocational and professional schools train students well enough to go far into their field of specialty without fear of nonsurvival, there will be less narrow-mindedness and a more general development of "wide and varied interests."

But the specialist needs more than a certain amount of leisure time if he is to develop an "appreciative understanding" of the world about him. Our vocational and professional schools (and this is true in many cases of so-called liberal-arts schools) have never made a definite attempt to give students an understanding of other fields of specialty and an understanding of the relation of those fields to the development of civilization. This is the third reason for our age of narrow interests. Narrow-mindedness must not be attributed entirely to circumstances of life outside school.

Nevertheless, regardless of cause, narrow interests lead to prejudices, misunderstandings, and intergroup conflicts. The farmer and the merchant may not only fail to co-operate but may even interfere with each other's welfare. Too frequently this is evident in our law-making assemblies. The Wall Street broker tries to have legislation passed that is detrimental to the interests of the laboring man. The reason is that he does not understand labor problems and the relation of labor to the laws of social progress. Intergroup and international strife is always due to the fact that neither side understands the other or the relationship to the laws that govern the welfare of both. Specialization, which is necessary to civilization's progress, must not lead to the dominance of specialized interests or the result will be the eventual extermination of all. Where there is specialization, there must also be cooperation because each specialized group is absolutely dependent on the products of all the other groups.

IV

Let us notice now that intergroup cooperation is dependent on the efficiency of our educational system. The

schools must offset the inadequacy of the natural course of events. They must remedy the causes of narrow-mindedness. We have said that cooperation is dependent on (1) the amount of understanding that each specialist has of other specialties, and (2) the amount of understanding each specialist has of the relationship of all specialties to the common task of gaining greater control over environment. This dual understanding is a matter of education. The typist can understand the problems of the coal miner and cooperate with him *only* if she has been educated in mining problems. It is the function of the school to begin the process of giving her this sort of education or to develop in her "the capacity for constantly expanding the range and accuracy of one's perception of meanings."

It would be easy to educate students to understand other specialties if it were not for the problem of interest. How can the teacher get students interested in a wide variety of occupations and the problems attending each? Certainly this sort of education must start in the early grades while the pupils are in a most plastic stage. It should continue then throughout the entire school system. The aim is to develop a *habit* of interest in other people and in their problems so that this will carry over into post-school life. The problem of the school is to prepare the student to educate himself after he gets out of school. This can only be done when the school makes a concentrated effort in that direction.

The second problem of education is to develop in the student an understanding of the relationship of all specialties to the progress of civilization. This involves a knowledge of the past, an understanding of the present, and a philosophy of the future. The present must be seen in relationship to the past and to the future. This is the greatest function of education. The present is so near and the past and future so remote that the job is difficult. Few people are able even to approximate a true perspec-

tive. Those few stand out in history as beacon lights which guide thinkers generation after generation. The most desired thing in life is the "knowledge to see aright."

In teaching a comprehensive philosophy of the future, it is necessary to draw heavily on the past. Before one can plan the future he must know the past and understand the present. This does not mean that history should become the core of all school work; rather, all school work should involve history. Natural science can be better understood and appreciated if there is some science history taught in the science course. This is likewise true of literature, social science, language, art, etc. The value of any course is enhanced if the students have a knowledge of the history of its development. Bode says that one "must gain a glimpse of the process by which man rose from the status where he was a slave of nature to the status where he became its master, and to secure some appreciation of the revolution of our whole outlook upon life that was brought about by this change."²

On this knowledge of the past and appreciative understanding of the present, should then be built a comprehensive philosophy of the future. Man has developed the ability to mold his own environment and thus control his own future. What that future will be depends on what man *plans* it to be. It is a very important function of the school to encourage and supervise students in formulating blue prints of the future. This does not mean that definite activity should be planned far in advance by the high-school or college undergraduate. Rather, that from his acquaintance with the past and the present, he should formulate definite basic principles of human conduct which may be used in the future as guiding principles. These principles should be broad in scope. They should be comprehensive enough to account for all phases of human endeavor. They should be, in fact, a philosophy of life.

It is a combination of these three things—a knowledge

²B. H. Bode, *Modern Educational Theories*, Modern Teacher's Series, (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1927), p. 299.

of the past, an understanding of the present, a philosophy of the future—that constitutes what we shall term as “culture,” “point of view,” “philosophy of life,” “liberal education,” “*Weltanschauung*.” A school course becomes an education only when it becomes so broad, so comprehensive. Nothing short of this type of education will offset the disadvantages of extreme specialization. Nothing short of this and specialization will enable mankind to approach higher and ever higher stages of civilization. The school must realize its mission in both phases of education—specialization and culture or philosophy of life. Without the aid of the school, civilization cannot progress. Our sociological heritage can be transmitted only through the schools. The greater the heritage or the higher the stage of civilization, the greater the function of the school.

Now, what effect will this conception of the function of education have on the method of educating? In answering this question, I shall consider only the nonspecialty schools, or those more directly responsible for developing in the student a “philosophy of life”—more commonly known as “liberal-arts” schools.

First, knowledge will have no place in education except as it is useful in explaining the present and planning the future. True education is not a body of knowledge but rather a philosophy of life. Thus the so-called knowledge courses will either have to drop out or make themselves valuable in developing a “point of view.” History as a body of facts is worthless. As information which is useful in explaining the present and planning the future, it is invaluable. Consequently courses must not be taught as independent knowledge, but only in relationship to the present and future.

Second, all courses will become instrumental in developing a philosophy of life, rather than instrumental to higher courses along the same line. Algebra will not be taught as a stepping-stone to geometry but as an end in itself. Students will see life from the standpoint of algebra and

their philosophy will be more complete because of it. Whether they learn algebra or not will be incidental, except that algebra knowledge which will be essential towards getting a clear point of view. All courses will be secondary to the main aim of education, which will be to develop a comprehensive philosophy of life. Knowledge will only be a means of accomplishing this aim.

Third, no course or department will be isolated or "sufficient unto itself" as is the present case. Many teachers now make a definite attempt not to teach the student anything but their own specialty. This situation could not exist in a school where the aim was to give the student an appreciative understanding of the world. Definite separation of education into compartments would be detrimental to a unified philosophy of life. The school must be secondary to the student. Departments and courses must be thought of as tributaries to a river, independent only until they come into contact with the river when they lose their identity and become a part of the whole. When separate "branches of knowledge" come in contact with the student, they must amalgamate with the whole and become an integral part of his philosophy of life rather than a compartment of knowledge.

VI

Shall we conclude, then, that a "point of view" makes survival less difficult? Shall we also conclude that a "point of view" facilitates specialization and cooperation to such an extent that it is a worthy aim in education? If so, then we must also conclude that it is the function of the school to encourage and aid the student in developing this "appreciative understanding" of the world around him. Education does not consist so much in knowing facts as in understanding the relationship of facts and phenomena to the common problems of mastering the environment. Obtaining a "point of view" is not only important in education but it *is* education. All else in education is secondary to this

AN ANALYSIS OF ERRORS MADE IN A TEST OF SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE¹

RUTH STRANG

In a complete case history, the need is frequently felt for a standardized measure of sociability. The test which has probably been most widely used is the George Washington Social Intelligence test. The interest in this test is evidenced in part by the number of articles written about it. In 1927, 1928, and 1929 at least eight investigations using this social intelligence test were reported. In some of the articles the validity of the test has been questioned on the grounds that it measures general intelligence rather than social intelligence and that it does not differentiate the truly sociable person from the person who is not a "good mixer." Garrett and Kellogg,² Pintner and Upshall,³ Broom,⁴ and Strang⁵ found positive correlations between the Social Intelligence test and the Thorndike General Intelligence test of 0.42, 0.68, 0.56, and 0.44 respectively. Correlations between the Social Intelligence test and other intelligence tests averaged around .50.

On the other hand, correlations between the Social Intelligence test and several other measures of sociability were low. Pintner and Upshall and Strang obtained low correlations— 0.14 ± 0.11 and $0.17 \pm .07$, respectively—between the Social Intelligence test and the Gilliland Sociability test. McClatchy⁶ found that groups known to differ in sociability were not always differentiated by the

¹Acknowledgment is made to Mrs Myrtle W McCormick for her efficient assistance in tabulating the material.

²H E Garrett and W N Kellogg, "The Relation of Physical Constitution to General Intelligence, Social Intelligence and Emotional Instability," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, XI, 1928, p 126

³R Pintner and C C Upshall, "Some Results of Social Intelligence Tests," *School and Society*, XXVII, 1928, p 370

⁴M E Broom, "A Note on the Validity of a Test of Social Intelligence," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XII, 1928, pp 426-28

⁵Ruth Strang, "Relation of Social Intelligence to Certain Other Factors," *School and Society*, XXXII, 1930, pp 268-72

⁶Vivienne R McClatchy, "A Theoretical and Statistical Critique of the Concept of Social Intelligence and of Attempts to Measure Such a Process," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXIV, 1929, pp 217-20

test, and that the correlation between ratings of social adaptability and the scores on the Social Intelligence test was only 0.16. Hunt,⁷ however, found a correlation of 0.61 between the scores on the Social Intelligence test and "ratings by competent persons."

In order to obtain "internal evidence" concerning the validity of the test as well as to analyze further the concept of social intelligence, a study of the errors made on the test by 321 women graduate students was undertaken. The median age of this group was 36.5 years; their median score on the Social Intelligence test was 113; and their average score in general intelligence corresponded with the average score of the Thorndike Intelligence test for college students.

ERRORS MADE ON TEST I

The first test is a multiple choice test of judgment in social situations. The largest number of errors were made in exercises 2, 3, 19, and 20. These four exercises will be briefly discussed because they illustrate characteristic defects in the construction of test items of this kind.

In exercise 2 which was marked incorrectly by 31 per cent of the students, the response of "speaking well of the departed relative" to an acquaintance who has just lost a near relative was mentioned almost as frequently as the correct response of "talking about current events of general interest." The difference of opinion as to the correct procedure in this case is doubtless due to the reader's interpretation of "acquaintance." If one were well acquainted with the person and his relative, it would seem entirely fitting to speak to him about the relative. This exercise illustrates the common fault found in test items of this kind of inadequately defining the situation in the descriptive part of the test.

The third exercise in Test I was marked incorrectly in 36 per cent of the cases, and warrants detailed analysis. This exercise reads as follows: "A woman immediately

⁷Thelma Hunt, "The Measurement of Social Intelligence," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XII, 1928, p. 317.

after being notified that her checking account at the bank has been overdrawn, visits the bank, and apologizing for the occurrence, offers her check on the same bank for the amount of the overdraft. The word best fitting her behavior is:

- _____Restitution
- _____Promptness
- _____Thoughtlessness
- _____Craftiness."

Thoughtlessness is given in the scoring key as the correct answer. In this exercise at least three factors must be held in mind: the overdrawing of the account, the apologetic visit to the bank, and the second overdraft. The two wrong answers most frequently marked show that weight was given by the readers to the second factor of prompt restitution. These errors are clearly errors of reasoning, not of social discrimination. The relation also of the content of this item to sociability is difficult to see. It seems to belong to a test of business acuity rather than to a test of sociability

Exercise 19 which was marked incorrectly by 32 per cent of the group illustrates another type of inadequacy in the test itself. The exercise is as follows: "James Harvey, a youth of 19, has been away at college for a year and a half. His father suddenly loses practically all his money and in order to make both ends meet suggests that James remain home for a year. James will probably resent this most if:

- _____He has earned part of his college expenses so far.
- _____He has worked hard for and attained excellent grades in his work.
- _____He is having a good time and is going chiefly for the fun of it.
- _____His father plans for his younger brother to remain at college.

The last response was the one most frequently marked,

whereas the third was the answer given in the scoring key. Any of the four proposed responses might be the chief cause of resentment. The situation has not been sufficiently defined to warrant any conclusion regarding the cause of resentment. In fact, a case study of James would be necessary before a reasonably accurate answer could be given to this exercise.

The response made to exercise 20 also is conditioned by factors not clearly defined in the description of the situation. Whether you would stop your car and offer to take your friend part way (the correct response) or explain to him when you see him again why you did not stop (the response made by 94 of the 321 students), depends on how great a hurry you are in, the preferences of your friend, the place of meeting, and other factors.

The errors made in Test I were frequently due to defects in the test itself. The three common types of faulty test items are.

a) Those having too many factors to be weighed, which makes the exercise a test primarily of reasoning rather than a test of sociability

b) Those in which certain terms are not sufficiently defined

c) Those in which the situation is not adequately described, and accordingly any of the proposed answers might be correct depending on circumstances not defined in the exercise.

ERRORS MADE ON TEST II

Test II is a test of memory for names and faces. Twenty-five photographs are presented, twelve of which had been studied ten to fifteen minutes previously.

Curious and inexplicable differences are found in the recognition of the twelve names and faces first presented. Most striking are the cases of Mike Bailey and Fritz Wagner. Mike Bailey, young and somewhat cross and prim looking, is forgotten by 128; while Fritz Wagner, older and somewhat pathetic looking, is remembered by

all but 10 of the 321 students in our study. Moreover, the three different classes are consistent in their remembrance of Fritz and their obliviscence of Mike. A more advantageous position on the page or the operation of the psychological principle of the obliviscence of the disagreeable do not seem to be factors causing the difference in the memory of the two photographs, since neither picture is in an especially favorable position, and in the case of other pictures also, the faces remembered seem no more agreeable than those forgotten. The presence of certain peculiarly relevant associations between the name and the face may be a factor in remembering. Introspective reports of people taking the test might give insight into the reason why Mike Bailey was forgotten and Fritz Wagner remembered. If the reason could be discovered we might, through science and art, make our faces more memorable!

ERRORS MADE IN RECOGNITION OF MENTAL STATES FROM
FACIAL EXPRESSIONS

Test III presents 12 poses representing different emotional states. Rage and coquetry as portrayed in these pictures were readily recognized. Horror was misinterpreted by 128, and terror by 79 of the subjects. Disgust and scorn were not identified in approximately one sixth of the cases. It cannot be assumed, however, that rage and coquetry are easier to recognize than terror and horror. The posed pictures may merely have represented one state more obviously than another. The close relationship of social ability to the ability to recognize these posed emotional states is doubtful because of the discrepancy between the real expression and the theatrical representation of emotion, and the lack, in the pictures, of changing expression, bodily posture, and vocalization, all of which aid in the recognition of emotional states in real life.

ERRORS MADE IN OBSERVATION OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR

Test IV consists of a series of statements concerning human behavior, some of which are true and some false.

The items most frequently marked incorrectly were generalizations concerning which no definite "yes or no" judgment could accurately be made. One hundred and forty subjects marked as false the statement that "those who work most rapidly are as a rule most accurate." This misconception is part of a popular fallacy regarding gifted children having some points of inferiority, but it is also an unwarranted generalization. Although in reading rapidity correlates positively with comprehension, in other situations, it has been shown that errors tend to increase when children and adults are urged to work more rapidly.

Test IV is more interesting as a test of social opinion than as a test of social intelligence. Approximately one fifth of the students disagreed with the following statements: "A person of strong character usually makes firm friends and bitter enemies." "For most people, forbidding an act increases the pleasure of doing it." "In business success, influential friends are often as important as hard work." "Few people enjoy the success of their associates without envy."

More than ninety-five per cent marked the following statements as indicated by the scoring key:

"Most people tend to imitate those whom they admire." "Giving newspaper publicity to the details of crimes tends to reduce the number of similar crimes committed." "The most efficient person seldom brags about his work." "In social relations demands are usually more effective than requests." "The older a person is the more easily he can be influenced by suggestion."

This test shows whether the judgment of the subject regarding these matters of opinion corresponds with the judgment of those who made the scoring key, but it seems to have little relationship to sociability.

ERRORS MADE IN SOCIAL INFORMATION

Test V consists of a series of statements regarding facts which are assumed to be of general social interest. However, it is quite conceivable that a socially intelligent person

might not know the name of "Andy Gump's" wife, the approximate population of the United States, or the occupation of W. L. Douglas

This test is interesting in showing the social information possessed by different groups. All but ten or less of the 321 students in the group knew that "They satisfy" is a cigarette slogan; that the *American Magazine* is published monthly, that the Elks are not organized for the purpose of protecting wild life; that the N. E. A. is not an organization of insurance workers; that the Statler system does not refer to department stores, that the Bowery is a section of New York City, and Sears Roebuck, a mail-order house; that *Les Misérables* was written by Victor Hugo; that "What Price Glory" is not an operetta, nor is Jane Cowl a vaudeville actress; and that all large cities in the United States do not prohibit prize fights. Such is the social information possessed by practically every member of this group.

The largest percentage of error was made in regard to the location of Arthur Brisbane's editorials. Two hundred and one (approximately two thirds) of the group did not know that these editorials usually appear on the first page. Approximately one third thought that the Army and Navy football game is usually played at either West Point or Annapolis. Other common misconceptions were in regard to the number of strings on a ukelele, the scheduling of trains according to Central Standard Time, the wife of "Andy Gump," the deuce score in tennis, the population of the United States, the author of the Acts of the Apostles, and the number of miles a Ford can run on a gallon of gasoline. The majority of these items are characterized by triviality, and in this specific form would seldom be a subject of conversation. It is difficult to imagine a sociable person discussing the number of strings on a ukelele or the population of the United States. Introducing such a topic should be a straight and narrow way leading to unpopularity. It would seem, therefore, that many of the items

in Test V would have little bearing on the measurement of functioning social intelligence

ERRORS MADE IN THE RECOGNITION OF THE MENTAL
STATE OF THE SPEAKER

The purpose of Test VI is to test the ability of an individual to recognize the emotion implied in written words.

There was considerable confusion in assigning a single mental state to the expression, "All, all are gone, the old familiar faces." Despair, disappointment, and grief were suggested as possible interpretations. Ten different mental states were suggested as interpretations of the words "The idea of her inviting me to her home! I wouldn't even speak to her on the street!" Ambition, despair, determination, hatred, and remorse were suggested as indicative of the state of mind of the person who said, "Now I could drink hot blood and do such bitter business as the day would quake to look on" Rage is given in the scoring key as the correct answer to this item.

Admiration is confused with love in the statement: "A perfect mother. No other words can do her justice" Despair is confused with disappointment in the statement: "That is cold news for me. Thus are all my hopes blasted" It would seem, in this case, that despair was a more fitting description than disappointment, and that the consensus of opinion of this group was more accurate than the official answer. In some of the other cases also, the mental states suggested by this group seem as appropriate as those given in the scoring key, and again point to faults inherent in the test.

There was little disagreement in interpreting "What shall I do? If only I could look ahead and see the consequences I would know what to do" as indicating indecision; "And to think I had looked forward to this party for days!" as disappointment; "Drink as much wine as you please but preach the benefits of water" as hypocrisy; and "We shall be detected Our guilty looks will betray us" as fear.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of analyses of errors usually is to show specific points at which practice is needed in order to improve the ability in question. For example, "ain't" is found to be a common grammatical error and the need for drill on the correct form "am not" is suggested. Applying the same line of reasoning to the errors found in the Social Intelligence test leads to the absurd conclusion that in order to improve in the "ability to deal with people," more practice is needed in recognizing Mike Bailey's picture the second time one sees it, distinguishing the expression of horror from suspicion or fear in a photograph of posed emotional states, knowing that Arthur Brisbane's editorials usually appear on the first page, and that Andy Gump's wife is not named Maggie. While, in general, the recognition of names, faces, and emotional states in the facial expression or utterances of individuals, and the knowledge of topics of current interest might reasonably be factors in social intelligence, the detailed items in this test seem to have little relationship to the overt sociability of an individual.

ON DEMANDING THE IMPOSSIBLE OF SOCIOLOGY

HELEN LELAND WITMER

In its attempts to become a science, sociology suffers from the efforts of both its foes and its friends. One group decries the possibility of deriving scientific conclusions from material so complex, so changeable, so unique, so impossible of experimental segregation as the interaction of human beings. Bain has recently met some of the criticisms of this group.¹ The other believes that sociology not only will become scientific but that when it does reach that hallowed state it will be able to predict, if not control, the actions of any given individual. Perhaps some sociologists themselves belong to this latter group, certainly it contains many nonprofessional thinkers on things social. And it may well be that the enthusiasm of this group will do more harm than the skepticism of the other, for both are doomed to disappointment, and the disappointment of enthusiasts is especially disastrous. It is the purpose of this paper to suggest a fundamental reason why sociology can never achieve the success its well-wishers expect of it. Some extracts from an article in a current periodical will serve as the text.

In the April, 1930, number of *Scribner's Magazine* those latest champions of marriage, Frances and Robert Binkley, challenged sociology under the title, "Marriage Without Benefit of Sociology."² While their jibes at sociologists and social workers were more or less deserved and their contribution important, if not strictly new, their main criticism of sociology suggests a misconception of the purpose of the social sciences.

¹Read Bain, "Concept of Complexity in Sociology," *Social Forces*, [VIII] 2 (December, 1929), pp. 222-231, 369-378.

²Frances and Robert C. Binkley, "Marriage Without Benefit of Sociology," *Scribner's Magazine*, LXXXVII, 4 (April, 1930), pp. 374 to 380.

The thesis of the article is that sociology, by looking at marriage as a social institution and neglecting to consider its personal, emotional side, has failed and should be supplanted. By what, it is not clear. It is stated only that its supplanter should recognize that marriage is a personal matter, explainable only in terms of individual cases. A few quotations may explain the situation better.

A generation ago sociology did a great service by supplanting the Church as the expounder of the verities of marriage, now it is time that sociology should be supplanted. . . . It is important to recall that the form only and not the essence of marriage is socially given.

The language of sociology came to supplant the language of the pulpit in the discussion of the marriage problem, the churchmen themselves followed the fashion. The Committee on Marriage and the Family, of the Federation of Churches, did not report that companionate marriage was unchristian, but that its effects would be anti-social. The next step will be to get rid of this parvenu vocabulary which exalts sociality, and to find terms that will honor personality, in the discussion and analysis of marriage.

However valuable may be the body of data which the sociologists have so laboriously accumulated and organized, those who deal with launching new marriages or repairing old ones [presumably the social workers] find that the people involved, perhaps perversely, seek other values than those of sociology.

The authors stated earlier that the sociologists "have made us think of marriage in terms of social purpose"—reproduction, caring for offspring, economic security—and it is apparently to these values that they refer in the previous paragraph. What the values are, however, is not particularly pertinent to this criticism of their article. What is criticized is the point of view that the discoveries of sociology should be of value in adjusting individual cases, and that, if they are not of such value, sociology has failed.

It is obvious that sociology can expand, has indeed already expanded, to take in the factor of personality in its explanation of marriage. They say that sociology, having overlooked the most important factors in marriage, should go, we maintain that even though sociology should include these factors it would still be of little value for the purpose they have in mind—for predicting whether Mary

and John's marriage will be successful. They are thinking in terms of the individual; and sociology, like every science, must abstract from the individual in order to explain the type. As Whitehead says,

Each phase of generalization exhibits its own peculiar simplicities which stand out at that stage and at no other stage. There are simplicities connected with the motion of a bar of steel which are obscured if we refuse to abstract from the particular molecules; and there are simplicities concerning the behavior of men which are obscured if we refuse to abstract from the individual peculiarities of particular specimens.⁸

This criticism which the Binkleys lodge against sociology is one that is met frequently; it is the criticism of the man on the street as well as that of other social and natural scientists. Here is a so-called science, they say, that pretends to study the rules of social interaction, and what has it discovered? The sociologists may point to their text books, filled with lists of words ending in *tion* or to their monographs in which correlation coefficients and spot-maps dazzle the eyes of the uninitiated, but the doubters are unconvinced. "You have not explained why Mary married John," say the Binkleys. "Of what use are your standards of living?" say the social workers. "The X family is in need of coal in spite of the fact that Mr. X earns \$2,000 a year." "What has the gang to do with it at any rate?" ask the psychiatrists. "Benny steals, and Bill does not, and they both belong to the gang."

In other words, what all these people expect of sociology, what even some sociologists themselves seem to expect, is that it should produce laws of social interaction which will be of use to them in their daily contact with other individuals. Such an expectation, now or in that far future in which sociology shall have become really "scientific," seems doomed to disappointment. For such is not the result of any science.

In a factory of the General Electric Company there is a deep concrete pit in which each motor is tested before it

⁸Alfred North Whitehead, *Process and Reality* (London: Cambridge University Press, 1929), p. 22.

is sent away. The motors are made of steel, and the laws of the structure of steel and of what will happen when an electric current passes through it are known, but perhaps some of the steel will not follow the laws, and the motor may fly to pieces. For laws, as is pointed out in all elementary textbooks, are not edicts handed down from above; they are statements of the way material is found to behave under certain conditions. They do not say that the material will behave in the same way every time, but that in such and such a proportion of cases the result may be expected to occur. In other words, laws are statistical, and they have their probable errors. So each motor is tested in safety before it is sold.

Natural science has been highly successful because it has been able to reduce the probable errors to a point at which they do not impede the practical application of the laws. Its laws, in other words, are more exact descriptions of what takes place than are those tentative hypotheses which social science has been able to advance. But it has been successful for another reason also: *because its laws are concerned with the action of units which are so small that as individuals they can be ignored*. Fifty years ago Maxwell⁴ wrote.

In applying dynamic principles to the motion of immense numbers of atoms the limitation of our faculties forces us to abandon the attempt to express the exact history of each atom and to be content with estimating the average character of a group of atoms large enough to be visible.

Today Dewey⁵ adds,

Heisenberg's principle, together with the discovery that mass varies with velocity, mark the generalized conclusion that all physical laws are of this character. The net effect of modern inquiry makes it clear that these constancies, whether larger ones termed laws or lesser ones termed facts, are statistical in nature. They are products of averaging large numbers of observed frequencies by means of a series of operations. They are not descriptions of the exact structure or behavior of any individual thing, any more than the actuarial "law" of the frequency of deaths of persons of a certain age is an account of the life of one of the persons included in the calculation.

⁴J. C. Maxwell, *Scientific Papers*, Volume II, p. 253, quoted by John Dewey in *The Quest for Certainty*, p. 249.

⁵John Dewey, *The Quest for Certainty* (New York: Minton, Balch and Company, 1929), p. 248.

It does not matter to a physicist how fast any individual atom goes so long as the average motion of the atoms remains at a given figure with only a small probable error. But when we come to apply the "laws" of sociology to everyday life we are chiefly interested, not in what the average action of the group is, but in what Johnny will do. We are interested in our ultimate units, the physicist, when he turns into an applier of his principles, is not. And a science will not tell us what the individual unit will do. So even though sociology should evolve a system of laws as nicely explanatory of its subject matter as was that of physics before Einstein appeared, it is questionable whether it would be of as much value to, say, social work, as many people would wish.

But it should not be concluded from this that the laws would be useless. They would be immensely useful to legislatures, to public administrators, to those who manage educational systems, to anybody who deals with mankind *en masse*. For they would tell them, with an error of such and such amount, what would happen given such and such a set of circumstances and such and such a group of human beings. And in helping mankind *en masse*, they would, of course, be of assistance to many individuals. For instance, right now there are many business men who say that the theories of the business cycle and the various barometers of production are of no value to them in running their factories. Perhaps they are right. The predictions are averages from many factories; they are not expected to fit every small plant; this is another case of the unit versus the universe. But that does not destroy the value of the indices as means by which governments, organizations of manufacturers or of laborers, bankers, etc., may to some degree anticipate future economic movements.

On the other hand, given the case of John and Mary—white, aged twenty-five, of normal intelligence, and of a wish to marry—what aid could be expected from the laws of a sociology which had become truly scientific? Very

little. For although sociology had produced its laws of social interaction from the observation and the averaging of the experience of many couples, each couple would still represent such a complex of forces that not one or a dozen laws could adequately account for it. The law would merely state how most couples under certain conditions would be likely to act. This John and Mary might act in that way, the conditions remaining constant, but rarely would they be of that exact compound of forces which the laws predicated, and more rarely would the circumstances agree with those stated in the laws. And so it would be very difficult to predict the best course for John and Mary to pursue—and perhaps dangerous to attempt to control their behavior—from a knowledge of the laws alone.

But, again it should be repeated, the search for laws is not useless. It is equally true that the fundamental laws of physics hold true only under controlled and grossly simplified conditions. But they, like the laws of the sociology of the future, are highly useful in suggesting directions in which to look when the scientist turns practical engineer. We may discover some ruling principle in marital relations, a hundred other conditions remaining constant. And that knowledge will be useful to the courts or clinics of domestic relations, even though all of the hundred conditions are not known. But they will need to know about many of them. There will have to be principles dealing with the action of some of them. But it is highly unlikely that there will be rules covering all of them or Gargantuan formulae resolving all the variables quietly into one equation which is John and Mary. It will be the artist who will take these principles of sociology—and others of biology and physiology and psychology and what-not—and, looking deep into the case of John and Mary, will achieve that prediction and control that is the aim of science. It is for such an artist, perhaps, that the Binkleys are looking.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

The following statements, which represent some of the research projects and methods in the field of problem behavior, guidance, and mental hygiene in relation to education, are presented here in anticipation of the special February issue of THE JOURNAL to be devoted to guidance. Space limitations in that issue will prevent the inclusion of all important projects in this field and for that reason some of them are presented here.

OFFICE OF EDUCATION RESEARCH

An analysis of the overt problem behavior of school children exposed to clinical adjustment is being made by Elise H. Martens, Ph D., senior specialist in the education of exceptional children, United States Office of Education, in coöperation with the public-school system of Berkeley, California. This study treats and evaluates statistically the development of overt problem behavior in 109 school children who were considered the most serious problem cases in the public schools of Berkeley, California, and who were referred for treatment to a behavior clinic. It uses an equated control group of 109 nonproblem children and a second control group of 50 problem children who were given no clinical attention. The findings are being interpreted in their relationship to the value of the clinical assistance given. Analysis of the data at the end of two years indicates a positive association between specialized clinical treatment of behavior disorders of children and decrease of problem behavior.

The Office of Education has published a bibliography of research studies in education for the year 1929-1930 and a second bibliography which includes such research projects dealing with behavior problems of school children as have been published in book or pamphlet form since 1920. Dr. Martens is the author of an annotated bibliography on the education and psychology of exceptional children (pamphlet no. 23), published July 1931.

BEHAVIOR RESEARCH FUND RESEARCH¹

Recognizing the need of research in what, after all, is a new field, the Friends of the Institute for Juvenile Research, representing a most distinguished group of public-spirited citizens of Chicago from the ranks of the medical and other professions and the business world, organized a campaign in 1925 and obtained from the community subscriptions for a fund incorporated under the laws of Illinois as the Behavior Research Fund. The Fund became operative May 1, 1926.

The purposes of the Behavior Research Fund are set forth in its charter:

"The object for which it is formed, and the particular business for which said corporation is formed, is to assist in the understanding, treatment, amelioration, and elimination of behavior problems in children and adults; to conduct and promote (or either) research and instruction in this field and the publication of the results thereof; to collect and receive funds and property for these purposes; and to do all and everything necessary, suitable, and convenient or proper for any of the purposes aforesaid "

While the community was asked to pledge itself for a period of five years, it was understood that during this period the Fund would have an opportunity not only to demonstrate its validity, but also to justify permanent support for research of this kind.

Realizing that it was impossible to carry on projects in all fields of behavior research, nevertheless, Dr. Heiman Adler, first director of the Fund, drew up a program that extended from projects in what might be called the more purely environmental sciences, such as the sociological investigations, on the one hand, to projects in those sciences which deal with the constitutional aspects of human behavior. In such a plan a considerable emphasis could, therefore, be placed upon the more specifically biological

¹The following statement has been furnished through the courtesy of Prof. Ernest W. Burgess, Acting Director of the Behavior Research Fund, 907 South Lincoln Street, Chicago, Illinois

approach. The diverse character of the publications of the Behavior Research Fund is therefore in harmony with this multiple approach to the scientific study of human behavior.

The following research studies are under way at present:

- "The Eidetic Child," Heinrich Kluver
- "Children of Pre-school Age. An Analysis of 600 Cases with Illustrated Personality Studies," Ethel Kavin *et al*
- "Negativism in Young Children," Margaret Wylie
- "Study in the Differences in Play Behavior of Children of 2, 3, 4, and 5 years," Dorothy Van Alstyne
- "Studies in the Development of Personality in the Pre-school Age," Gustav Jaederholm
- "Children's Behavior Problems, II, Relative Importance, Interrelations among Behavior Traits," Luton Ackerson
- "The Treatment of Reading Disabilities," Marion Monroe
- "Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas. A Study of Juvenile Delinquency in Sixteen American Cities," Shaw, Zorbaugh, and McKay
- "Brothers in Crime," Clifford R. Shaw.

NEW YORK STATE RESEARCH PROJECT

The New York State Education Department gave official recognition to the importance of psychiatric contributions to and sharing of problems, opportunities and obligations of the educator, by creating the position of State Psychiatrist July 1, 1930²

At the present time the following research projects bearing on mental hygiene are being carried out:

1. Miss Mary McCormick, supervisor of health teaching, and Miss Florence O'Neill, her assistant, are conducting a questionnaire of a State-wide selected sampling of school children's health habits, including mental-hygiene practices. The purpose of the study is to collect facts as to the present status and needs concerning health habits in order that attention may be turned to neglected aspects and a new syllabus of health teaching formulated. The method used is the questionnaire sheet and personal conferences with teachers prior to and during the study.

²The appointment of Frederick L. Patry, M.D., as Neuropsychiatrist of the State Education Department of the University of the State of New York was made effective March 1, 1931. It is through the courtesy of Dr. Patry that the above statement is presented.

2. Personal individual conferences with school superintendents throughout the State are being conducted by Dr Patry in order to collect facts concerning (a) the number of superintendents who feel the need of psychiatric help, (b) the extent of their needs, (c) the existing set-up, personnel, and methods of understanding and handling mal-adjusted pupils and teachers, (d) the actual use made of present existing clinical or therapeutic facilities, (e) the extent and methods of mental-hygiene education and practice in the schools and school-involved associations such as the parent-teacher groups. The purpose of such a study is to see how the status of mental-hygiene education and practices might be favorably modified and extended

3. Personal individual conferences with normal-school principals and teacher-training college presidents in order to collect facts concerning the status of mental-hygiene education and practice in their respective institutions. The object of the study is the same as in 2

4. Classroom discussions and carrying out of a personality study of the normal-school and teacher-training college students. The purpose of this project is to estimate the practicability and wisdom of initiating and extending a personality study to all teachers in training. This may be extended to graduate teachers.

5. Utilization of a "Psychobiological Balance Chart" by teachers in order to help them discern and focus on each of their pupils' assets and liabilities. This latter group is subdivided into "Modifiable" and "To be accepted." The object of the chart is to sensitize the pupil's present teacher and his subsequent teachers, as to the genetic-dynamic and experience-determined as well as the constitutional factors entering into each pupil's reactive and adaptive behavior, and how these might be capitalized through a better understanding and balancing of these factors. This chart will be forwarded to his subsequent teachers. Progress made and the influence of new situations, new teachers, and social contacts will be noted as factors modifying the pupil's ability and facility in balancing his assets and liabilities.

YALE CLINIC OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH

The Clinic of Child Development,^{*} formerly known as the Yale Psycho-Clinic, was established in 1911. Affiliated with the School of Medicine, it has become one of the sections of the Institute of Human Relations and continues to function both as a research unit and as a service organization. The investigation of child development and the work of child guidance are conducted in close association; the fundamental emphasis is upon the normal aspects of development and upon the period of infancy.

The research program of the Clinic comprises genetic and systematic studies of the beginnings of normal human behavior. Although the primary emphasis of the research is on normal development, detailed developmental and clinical studies are undertaken of children who present significant deviations or defects. A resident suite and nursery provide for prolonged observation of infants presenting special developmental or clinical conditions.

The general program of the Clinic combines psychological and medical approach to the problems of early mental growth. An effort is being made to study these problems by methods comparable to those used in the study of physical and anatomic growth. The major research is directed towards a normative charting of behavior development of the infant throughout the first year of life. Inventories and records of behavior patterns are made at monthly intervals with the aid of the motion picture camera. These patterns include the fields of posture, locomotion, prehension and manipulation, adaptive behavior, and also language and personal-social behavior. By utilizing permanent motion-picture records and the accompanying descriptive data, forms of behavior are defined in varying degrees of detail.

The purpose behind the investigation is an objective delineation of the characteristics and norms of early men-

^{*}This statement is furnished through the courtesy of Arnold Gesell, M D, Director, Clinic of Child Development, School of Medicine, Yale University.

tal growth. It is assumed that the formulation of such norms may furnish a base line for studies of the origin and of the development of individual differences. From the standpoint of medical science, the technique of developmental diagnosis and developmental supervision depends upon a knowledge of the nature of early child growth, mental as well as physical. In a psychobiological sense, problems of human personality have a genetic or developmental aspect which traces back to infancy. To this degree, the study of child development is related to the broader objectives of the Institute in its researches into individual and social behavior.

The Guidance Nursery functions as an adjunct to the service department of the Clinic and is used for the individual guidance of young children who present behavior problems. The Guidance Nursery is also utilized for investigations of social behavior and personality development of both normal and problem children. The arrangements make possible the study of practical procedures in the field of child and parent guidance and of early developmental supervision.

A larger and growing collection of motion-picture records of child behavior has been assembled in a photographic library, classified by library methods. These records supply permanent data for cumulative research and also serve for demonstration.

BOOK REVIEWS

Developing Personality in the Child at School, by GARRY CLEVELAND MYERS. New York: Greenberg, 1931, xv+375 pages.

Building Personality in Children, by GARRY CLEVELAND MYERS. New York: Greenberg, 1931, xv+360 pages.

These books are companion volumes intended for parents, teachers, guardians, and social workers. In them the author has brought together a great deal of material that will provide, in part, a suitable background for dealing with the various aspects of child development. Personality development is the central theme. How to keep the child behaving normally is of primary importance; how to remedy personality defects and maladjustments is correctly considered of secondary importance. There are chapters dealing with such interesting topics as teaching tattling at school, school fears that affect personality, relation of teacher's human frailties to the pupil's personality, success and failure in relation to personality, escapes, behavior problems of school children, the timid child, home cultivation of successes and their celebration, emotional poise and personality. The author is a reputable psychologist and his advice is authoritative. He does not offer panaceas but he does make wholesome suggestions. His style is informal, unpretentious, figurative, and interesting. Naturally, if he were writing for critical psychologists he would have used a more technical vocabulary and a different style. These books are just the thing that parents, teachers, and social workers have needed for a long time. In the opinion of the reviewer they will be heartily received.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

Books: Their Place in a Democracy, by R. L. DUFFUS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930, 225 pages.

Undertaken by Mr. Duffus for the Carnegie Corporation, the aim of this modest little tome is to set forth the main facts about "the publication and distribution of serious, nontechnical books" in the Republic. At first blush, such an effort holds little promise of entertaining reading. But such, I am glad to report, is not the case. For Mr. Duffus has produced a work which is as lively in spots as *Babbitt* and the *Congressional Record*. This, I believe, is rather inevitable. For, after all, any honest reporter of the American scene and manners is bound to be amusing as well as interesting.

From the vast array of facts assembled by the diligent Mr. Duffus, it appears perfectly plain that the citizens of the American democracy

are not voracious readers. The average native can get along quite adequately with seven books a year. For two of these he pays spot cash. He borrows another couple from the public library. Two enter his hands via the lending library. The seventh book he borrows from a friend, though such book-lending friends, I fear, belong to a vanishing species. Does the average American spend about a dollar and a half per annum on his books? Then he pours out eleven times as much for his legitimate drinks, twelve times as much for his radio, twenty-two times as much for the cinema, and twenty-eight times as much for candy. Only about five per cent of the national populace are habitual book-buyers, and at least half the nation has no access to bookstores. At least, so Mr. Duffus feels—though precisely how this is so in these days of high-pressure book advertising, radio book-reviewing, the United States mail to carry one's check to a bookstore, and the parcel post to bring back a book, I fail to see.

Still, that's only a minor point which I am perfectly willing to waive. Mr. Duffus has written a first-rate book which in a scholarly, yet lively way, sets down an abundance of interesting material concerning authors, publishers, librarians, booksellers, and other distinguished bipeds

ADOLPH E MEYER

The Technique of Social Progress, by HORNE LL HART.
New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1931, 685 pages.

Creative Moments in Education, by JOSEPH K. HART.
New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1931, 463 pages.

During recent years there have appeared numerous books dealing with some aspects of social progress. *The Technique of Social Progress* approaches progress historically and deals with the following topics: Material Progress, The Evolution of Intellectual Tools, Developments in Social Relations, and The Technique of Creation.

The book is well written, presents an attractive appearance, and affords a mass of material of highest importance for the sociologist and the educator.

Creative Moments in Education is a history of education dealing with the following topics. What Education Began With, The First Creative Moment in Education, Foundations Made Without Hands, Ex Oriente Lux, The Universal Empire; A New Creative Moment, The Making of Medievalism, Cross-Fertilization and New Growth, Light Before Dawn, The Emergence of the Modern World; Some Partisan Contrasts in Modern Education, Disorganization in the Modern World, Conflicting Aims in Modern Education; Extracurricular Factors in Modern Education.

The author summarizes his purpose as follows:

This book is an attempt to develop some of the dramatic

contrasts and contradictions of history, especially as these play upon the developing processes of education. The intellectual life of the race is an accomplishment, an age-long achievement, the product, to date, of ten thousand human generations. There have been long ages of stagnation, or gradual accretion; there have been Great Moments of Creation. The student must see both of these types of movement—the long, slow ages, the creative moments when new forms of life, new types of mind, emerge. The effort has been made to set them both in some plausible order in this book, not dogmatically, but with the certainty that other, later workers will do the job better in their own good time.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

The Elementary School: Its Organization and Administration, by WILLIAM C. REAVIS, PAUL R. PIERCE, and EDWARD H. STULLKEN. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1931, 571 pages

This book is a comprehensive, well-organized, and authoritative treatment of the elementary public school. In addition to their own valuable contribution the authors have brought to bear on all important problems of elementary-school organization and administration the most advanced thought and practice of the present time. The book is well organized and attractively written.

The twenty-one chapters include discussion of such important topics as the following: The Principles of Organization and Administration; Planning an Initial Organization of an Elementary School; Adjustment of a School Organization to Community Needs; Organization of Administrative Office; Administration of Pupils; Classification and Promotion of Pupils; Organization and Administration of Curriculum, Extracurriculum Activities; Administration of Special Groups, Special Subjects, Elementary School Library, Classroom Teaching, Pupil Progress, Teacher Improvement, Building and Ground Equipment and Supplies, Personnel of Elementary School Principalship; The Principal as an Educational Leader of His School and Community, The Elementary School Principalship as a Career in Administration, and A Program of Professional Improvement for the Principal. There is also a well-chosen bibliography on elementary-school administration and organization.

The book supplies the need of an excellent text for use in educational administration in college and university courses. Principals and superintendents in active service will also find the book stimulating and of great practical value. I heartily recommend it.

JOHN W. WITHERS

American High Schools and Vocational Schools in 1960, by DAVID SNEDDEN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, 122 pages.

For a quarter of a century David Snedden has been a gadfly busily causing cautious, conservative, and orderly educators to kick and prance and occasionally to run. In his intensive manner he has proposed and defended a thoroughly consistent but often very unconventional program of education.

The educational world has been profoundly affected by the searching criticisms and constructive proposals of Dr Snedden. But it can scarcely be asserted that his definite proposals for educational reform have been taken over into practice to any considerable extent.

Perhaps, therefore, it is a wish fulfillment that drives the author to adopt the literary form used in this volume. In 1960, a commission of the Chinese National Board of Education has visited and investigated the American system of secondary education. The Commission's report to the Chinese Government is an exposition of a thoroughly Sneddenized system. Thus Snedden is enabled to set forth a program which in 1960 has already definitely been in successful operation, so that he escapes or parries the charge of impracticability often shot at him. For in 1960 the school curriculum distinguishes clearly between proximate (applied) and deferred (preparatory) optimum functionings; appreciational and cultural objectives are never confused or mingled with power objectives, cultural and civic uniformities have their own areas or aspects of curriculum practices while enriching diversities have theirs, very specific unit courses are taught so that a unit objective is achieved in each one.

Dr. Snedden has set forth a thirty-year plan for American education. If we might have many such plans as convincingly set forth and as individualistically conceived, there would emerge a sense of direction for our schools that is very much needed.

P. W. L. Cox

The Making of Adult Minds in a Metropolitan Area, by FRANK LORIMER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 245 pages.

Although this book is a report of a study solely in the field of adult education and is restricted to one geographic area, it should command the attention of every thoughtful person. The Brooklyn Conference on Adult Education which conducted the study utilized a technique suggestive for other types of educational and sociological research, their conclusions are extremely significant for all education; and their recommendations, while specifically made for the area studied, are of such a character as to be of general value.

The study differs from others in this field in that it is more than an analysis of adult-education opportunities. Through questionnaires, interviews, and case studies it evaluates the results of the work being done as it affects the making of an adult mind—"A mind that is equipped vocationally, socially, and spiritually for life on the adult level under present conditions."

In terms of mass production, its findings are gratifying, "about 40 per cent of the entire adult population of Brooklyn have at some time taken some sort of part-time courses." But in terms of measurable results there is still much to be done. "There is clearly a large potential demand for general academic, commercial, technical, and industrial courses (as contrasted with specific shop and vocational courses) if made available for adults at low cost and freed from traditional academic restrictions." "Among the random sample of 1,166 students, just 6 reported any special adult courses in the entire field of social science including scientific psychology, history, government, politics, eugenics, international relations, or economics (other than business courses)." "Undoubtedly the radio has important educational usages—but the check upon its significance to date does not fulfill the first hopes of the enthusiasts for radio education."

Two other quotations selected almost at random indicate the challenging nature of this forcefully written book. "The educational problem has shifted from a concern about the 'distribution' of knowledge to a concern about its 'consumption,'—from interest in mass *instruction* to interest in individual and community *education*." "The selection, presentation, and emphasis of ways of living that are found in individual experience to be significant and beautiful, and the development of the critical capacity of individuals is the function of educational systems."

FRANCIS J. BROWN

The Government of Oxford. London: The Oxford University Press, 1931, 94 pages.

Those restless spirits in our noble profession who so persistently follow the gleam of academic freedom in university control and invariably note with regret every instance of its violation in this country will find in this cogent little monograph some surcease of sorrow. It will comfort them, let us hope, to find that even the machinery of internal government in universities, like the course of true love, does not always run smoothly. A voluntary group of dons and college officials presents here the results of their study of control at Oxford with additional notes on government at Cambridge, London, and the provincial universities. The secretary of the group adds, in an appendix, the results of his visit to the United States and Canada. For cogency and clearness of statement the volume is admirable. It is not possible here to review its contents. All persons interested in the much mooted problem of the relative value of different systems of university

control in this country and abroad will find here a treatise worthy of careful study.

J. O. CREAGER

Pestalozzi, by LEWIS FLINT ANDERSON. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1931, 263 pages.

In 1927 the Old World celebrated the one hundredth anniversary of the death of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi. To grace this high feast with the requisite pomp and circumstance, learned societies were called into communion, books and monographs were flung into type; and harangues were tossed into the ether. Johann's homeland, the little Republic of Switzerland, remembered its great son with a special commemorative postage stamp bearing his well-known likeness. Meanwhile, educators in our republic went about their usual busy ways; save a few impractical historians, most of the American schoolmen weren't even cognizant of the Pestalozzian memorial year. Yet, strangely enough, just two generations before, Pestalozzian ideas were appearing as a new lodestar in American pedagogics.

Here, four years after, is a volume on the man who "did everything for others, but nothing for himself." Its aim is quite simple, namely, to set down "in chronological order passages which are characteristic of Pestalozzi's educational writings . . . which will aid the reader to a fairly accurate conception of his work as a whole." Plainly the book is not meant for the scientific *pedagoga* who emit job analyses and standard curves of deviation at every tick of the clock. Nor is it meant for those great men of action who lust for the practical. Nor is it intended for the advanced Pestalozzian who reads Johann in his German mother tongue. For such a fellow the new researches of Bachenaue, Spranger, and Stettbacher are of much greater heft and value. Professor Anderson's book, I believe, will render its greatest service to those who are interested in men, their psyche and behavior. What is offered here is Pestalozzi himself. True, the portrait is not complete. The whole Pestalozzi fails to come off. That curious correlation of dreamer and successful practitioner, of kind-hearted schoolmaster and bickering, quarrelsome Yverdon director is not found in these pages of Professor Anderson. The essence of Pestalozzian ideas, however, is present, and this, while ancient and familiar to Pestalozzians, is all that Professor Anderson was seeking to set down.

ADOLPH E. MEYER

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Foreign Education Specialist Named to Office of Education Staff

Alma M. Lindegren, for the past three years instructor in medieval history and modern European history at State Teachers College, Superior, Wisconsin, has been appointed to the Federal Office of Education, foreign school systems branch, as specialist in Western European school systems.

The chief duty of Miss Lindegren will be to prepare for publication in English, from the original data written in the language of the country, bulletins, circulars, and articles on education in the Western European countries, particularly the Germanic-language countries. She will assist in maintaining constant contact with educational movements in those countries, and in collecting and keeping adequate documentation about them. Study will also be made by the new office of education specialist of foreign education systems. She will aid college registrars and committees of admission in the United States to evaluate credentials of students from the Germanic-Scandinavian countries, and will make comparative studies to determine more accurately the status of such students.

One-Hundredth Anniversary of G. and C. Merriam Company

The year 1931 marks the one-hundredth anniversary of the establishment of G. and C. Merriam Company, publishers of the Merriam-Webster dictionaries. From modest beginnings in 1831 George and Charles Merriam later acquired by purchase from his heirs all rights in the publication of Noah Webster's American Dictionary of the English Language, which first appeared in 1828, in two quarto volumes. In 1847 a new edition of this first unabridged American dictionary was prepared and published by the Merriams. Several revised and enlarged editions have followed from time to time, until Webster's New International Dictionary, with more than 452,000 entries is generally recognized today as one of the "supreme authorities" of the English-speaking world.

Eighth Annual Scholastic Awards

Scholastic, the national magazine for high-school classrooms, offers \$10,000 in prizes and scholarships for creative work by high-school students in literature and in visual arts through the eighth annual Scholastic Awards.

Several booklets are in preparation by sponsors to assist participants in the awards. For complete rules and information write to the Scholastic Awards, Wabash Building, Pittsburgh, Pa.

New Indian Service Fills 800 School Positions

Nearly 800 educational positions in United States Indian territory have been filled during the past year, according to Dr. W. Carson

Ryan, education director of the Indian Bureau in the United States Department of the Interior.

Appointments included superintendents of schools, principals, visiting teachers, home-economics teachers, heads of departments of home economics, girls' advisers, directors of boys' activities, teachers of physical training, teachers of fine arts, and elementary instructors. Of 614 elementary teachers now in the Indian Office employ, 100 are new appointees.

Another forward movement in Indian education has been the appointment of George C Wells, secretary of the State board of education in Oklahoma, to the position of State supervisor of Indian education in that State. This is the first real step towards cooperation between Federal and State governments where progress will be directed in close cooperation with State offices.

Dr. Paul Monroe, director of the International Institute of Education, was elected president of the World Federation of Education Associations at the summer session at Denver. He succeeds Dr. Augustus O. Thomas of Maine who has been president of the organization since it was first founded.

Dr. Walter Scott Athrean, dean of the school of religious education of Boston University, has been selected to succeed Dr. Robert J Aley as president of Butler University.

Dr. Elmer Ellsworth Brown celebrated his twentieth year as chancellor of New York University on November 9. During this period the student body has increased from 4,175 to 40,665 and faculty members from 225 to more than 1,700. The members of the faculties of the various schools of New York University presented to Chancellor Brown a beautiful silver bowl in commemoration of this anniversary.

Dr. Henry Alden Shaw has been appointed assistant professor of mental hygiene at the Harvard University Medical School. He has been associated with the school since 1925 as assistant in hygiene and psychiatrist.

Dr. John M. Glenn, general director of the Russell Sage Foundation since its inception twenty-four years ago, has resigned that post, but will continue to serve as one of the trustees of the foundation. Mr. Shelby M. Harrison, director of the department of surveys and exhibits of the foundation since 1912 and vice general director in recent years, has succeeded Mr. Glenn as general director.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Mr. Francis J. Brown received his A.B. from the University of Iowa in 1918 and his A.M. from Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1923. He was principal of the high school in Emmett, Idaho, from 1919 to 1920, superintendent of schools from 1920 to 1922, instructor in education at the University of Rochester from 1923 to 1926, and assistant professor of education and associate director of extension at the University of Rochester, from 1926 to 1930. At present Mr. Brown is instructor in education at New York University School of Education. He is a member of the Department of Superintendence, American Association of University Professors, American Sociological Association, Kappa Phi Kappa, and Phi Delta Kappa. He is the author of *Objective Measurement of Character, an Experimental Study*; *The Value of Incentives in Education*; *The Free Time Reading Interests of High School Students*, and *An Evaluation of Extra-mural Courses*.

Mrs. Marian W. Campbell received her A.B. from Mount Holyoke College and her A.M. from Claremont College, Claremont, California. At present she is a teacher of English and Latin in Emerson Junior High School, Pomona, California. She is the author of "A Group of Sixth Grade Projects" in *The Normal Instructor and Primary Plan*., and "Teaching the *Lady of the Lake* Creatively" in *The English Journal*.

Professor J. Stanley Gray received his A.B. from Muskingum College in 1920, his A.M. from the University of Michigan in 1924, and his Ph.D. from Ohio State University in 1929. Professor Gray has taught in Gustavus Adolphus College, University of Minnesota, University of Oregon, and Ohio State University, and is now assistant professor of psychology in the University of Pittsburgh, Johnstown center. Professor Gray is the author of *Communicative Speaking* and *Gray's Speech Test*. His published magazine articles are too numerous to mention.

Miss Ada E. Orr is a graduate of New York University and is studying this year at that institution for her master of arts degree. For the past six years Miss Orr has been head of the girls' physical-education department at Whittier Junior High School, Flint, Michigan. Miss Orr is keenly interested in young people. For five summers she was athletic counselor at a girls' camp in Maine and for the past three years she has been captain of a Girl Scout Troop.

Miss Ruth Strang attended the University of Chicago and Columbia University from which institution she received her doctor's degree in 1926. At present she is assistant professor of education at Teachers College, and chairman of the Research Committee of the National Association of Deans of Women. She is the author of the following

books: *Health Subject Matter, An Introduction to Child Study*, joint author of *The Gates-Strang Test of Health Knowledge, A Personnel Study of Deans of Women in Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges*, and *A Personnel Study of Deans of Girls in High School*. She has also contributed a number of articles to *The American Journal of Sociology*, *The School Review*, *School and Society*, and other journals and magazines.

Miss Helen L. Witmer received her A.B. from Dickinson College in 1919 and her Ph.D. from University of Wisconsin in 1925. Miss Witmer was Fellow of the Social Science Research Council from 1928 to 1929. Since 1930 she has been Director of Research at Smith College School for Social Work and editor of *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, a quarterly publication of the School.

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EDITORIAL

The findings of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection are beginning to find their way into print. They constitute the greatest challenge that a civilization has ever thrown down to its educators. They picture a waste of human resources that is appalling. No small part of this waste takes place within the public schools. As the findings of the White House Conference become public property and their implications are digested, there is bound to be a quickening of interest in the problems of special education and guidance. It behooves those of us who are professional educators to be anticipating in our thinking the questions which the intelligent public will ask. This number of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY will, it is hoped, stimulate such thinking among school men. The creation of so-called "problem" children in the educational process constitutes the major part of the human wastage in childhood that may be laid at the door of the school. The articles in this issue attempt to present this problem, with its educational implications, and point the way out.

The first article gives an idea of the extent of adult maladjustment in contemporary life, points out that any constructive program for dealing with maladjustment must be educational in nature, and discusses some of the changes

that must be effected in the thinking and in the procedures of the public schools if they are to undertake their share of a social program aimed at the prevention of maladjustment. Yourman's article discusses the group of children called "problems" by their teachers, the criteria against which teachers judge children to be problems, the experience of problem children in the public school, and some of the factors in the organization of our schools which create problems in children. The article by Fisher discusses the use of the cumulative record in the guidance of pupils, outlining a procedure which, applicable to any school, makes possible a constructive attack on problems of pupil maladjustment. Robinson's article discusses the experiences of a city school system in setting up a department of child guidance to supplement the work of the teacher and supervisor in meeting the needs of the individual child, and points out the rôle of various specialists—psychiatrist, psychologist, and visiting teacher—in a well-organized guidance program. Finally, Ellis outlines a constructive social program for meeting the needs of physically and mentally handicapped children, and indicates the school's relationship to such a program.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

MENTAL HYGIENE'S CHALLENGE TO EDUCATION

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

The writer was talking some weeks ago with the representative of a social agency in a western city which was engaged in a study of the "unemployable"—the unemployable being defined for the purpose of the study as men and women within the ages demanded by industry and without gross physical defects who failed to hold jobs in spite of repeated efforts of social agencies to place them. The representative of the social agency making the study said: "Our findings ought to be of interest to the public schools. This group, for the most part, are physically and mentally adequate enough to find and hold jobs. They are unemployable largely because of their attitudes towards society. In the majority of cases these attitudes can be traced to their first contacts with an institution representative of society, the public school. Their answers to questions dealing with their schooling reveal that most of them disliked school, had difficulty in school, were in trouble with the school authorities, and left school—as soon as they could get out—with a resentment towards the school and towards authority in general. If the schools do not of their own accord wake up to their responsibility for these misfits, and accept the responsibility for them, there are a lot of us who are intelligent citizens and taxpayers who are damn well going to see to it that they are forced to!"

Those who can't or won't meet the demands of adult life constitute the greatest problem of our civilization. Some indication of their numbers is given by the report of the White House Conference that there are 500,000 individuals in our prisons, hospitals for mental disease, almshouses, and institutions for defectives. Every year there

are 70,000 persons admitted for the first time to hospitals for the mentally diseased and more than 300,000 persons committed to prison; and for every individual committed there are several at large who are unadjusted to the complex social and industrial conditions of modern life. The unemployable and dependent are in the spotlight at present because of the unemployment situation incident upon the depression. But the delinquent, criminal, and the mentally unstable constitute the groups of major social concern. Our crime bill last year was at least three and one-half billion dollars—twice the Federal income tax, and nearly twice the total cost of public education. Our hospitals for the mentally unstable are full to overflowing, and it is estimated that of those children in the State of New York now under sixteen years of age who live to be sixty, one in ten will at some time during his life suffer a temporarily disabling mental breakdown, and one in twenty will occupy a bed in a hospital for the mentally unsound.

The penitentiary and the psychopathic hospital may seem remote from the public school, but we are accumulating facts about the childhood of maladjusted adults that make them seem not so remote. Our crime commissions are discovering that a large part of crime is committed by a relatively small proportion of criminals who are repeated offenders. These repeated offenders were for the most part known as recidivists in adolescence by the juvenile court. Their first delinquencies were typically truancy from school. The majority of them were considered problems in school. Again, the majority of the patients who fill the beds in our psychopathic hospitals were recognized as unstable or "different" personalities in adolescence, and their histories reveal a succession of difficulties of adjustment extending back into early childhood.

The great majority of the maladjusted adults were problems in childhood. All of them were school children. Many of them were recognized as problems by the school. What happened to them in school? Yourman's article in this number of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*

contains the answer to this question. His answer may be pointed by a story here. A boy in a midwestern city was in constant difficulty with his teachers, was frequently a truant, and was finally committed to a disciplinary school. The disciplinary school was a much better school than the public school in which he had been. The teachers did not resent him. They were sympathetic and understood him. He was happy, took an interest in his school work, made a quick adjustment, and in a few months was paroled. When it was known that he was to be paroled the child guidance clinic, to which he had been referred for study, got in touch with his old school to which he must return, explained his problem, and talked with the teacher of the grade into which he was to go as to how he should be handled. Principal and teachers shook their heads. He was "incorrigible." He returned to his old school. In a few weeks he was in difficulty again. He was reported as a trouble maker and as defiant of the school authorities. He went back to the clinic of his own accord to talk over his difficulties with his friend, the psychiatrist. The psychiatrist asked him what the trouble was. The boy said the school wouldn't give him a new deal, treated him just as they did before he was put away; it was no use trying, he wished he could go back to the disciplinary school. The psychiatrist said: "Well, son, you had better run away again." The boy ran away, was recommitted for the period of his schooling, and ultimately made a good adjustment.

The problem child whose behavior makes him a disturbing factor in the classroom is typically suppressed or eliminated; the problem child whose behavior is not a disturbing factor in the classroom is not recognized as a problem or is ignored. Let no one think these attitudes are characteristic only of the worst of our schools. A boy was referred to the Clinic for the Social Adjustment of the Gifted at New York University as a behavior problem. He was attending one of the most famous experimental schools in America where he was in difficulty with most of his teachers and failing miserably in spite of a very high

I.Q. The Clinic's social worker, as part of the study of the boy's social background, visited the school and talked to the principal. As soon as the boy's name was mentioned the principal became emotional. "You need not tell me what that boy needs. He needs a thrashing and I'd give it to him if I dared. The trouble with that boy is that he has the intelligence of an adult with the emotions of a child." The social worker replied that the Clinic saw the problem in the same light, and that between the school and the Clinic a solution to the boy's difficulties should be found. At which the principal exclaimed: "Madam, this is an experimental school, and we have no time to bother with problem children."

It is interesting to speculate as to how long the intelligent public will tolerate this attitude—particularly as the mental-hygiene movement is aggressively carrying the case to the public. Whether the school has a responsibility for these problem children depends, however, upon whether their problems are educational or medical. A prominent Chicagoan, addressing a service club, recently stated: "If you find a delinquent Italian boy in Chicago look for a defective germ plasm in Sicily"; and not long since a Chicago judge sentenced a boy to an operation "to remove his criminal instinct." Up to a short time ago the majority of the students of delinquency were inclined to attribute delinquent behavior to some constitutional factor—heredity, physical inferiority, inadequate intelligence, or an unstable nervous system. One physician went so far as to assert that if Congress would appropriate the money to remove all the focal infections found in children we could shortly tear down our reform schools and prisons.

Carefully controlled studies, such as those of Slawson,¹ have eliminated one constitutional factor after another as a possible explanation of delinquency. Meanwhile, Shaw's studies under the Behavior Research Fund in Chicago have adduced evidence to show that delinquency is to be explained largely in terms of the cultural organization of

¹John Slawson, *The Delinquent Boy* (Boston R G Badger, 1926), viii+477 pages

those communities from which delinquents come.² Delinquent behavior, like any other behavior, is a pattern of reaction to the child's social experience, to the values of his social world. Indeed, Dr. R. R. Williams, psychiatrist at the Children's Village, has said that the greatest need of the older boys committed to that institution is a socially acceptable set of values.

Delinquency, clearly, is an educational rather than a medical problem. We cannot speak with equal confidence as to mental instability. Whether constitutional differences in the organization of the nervous system are involved is uncertain; but mental hygienists are agreed that the majority of personalities that break under strain, break as a result of unfortunate emotional attitudes. These unfortunate emotional attitudes, like all attitudes, again are learned and are the products of experience. Mental instability is certainly as much an educational as a medical problem. The trend from institutional psychiatry to habit clinics and child guidance clinics reflects this fact.

If the social solution of adult maladjustment lies in a preventative educational program rather than in medicine, the schools are faced with a responsibility which they will be forced to accept, a responsibility for the education of the child's personality as well as for the education of his body and mind, a responsibility for the child's emotional habits as well as for his mental and manual skills. We are prone to believe that children will outgrow undesirable emotional traits. That this is not true is convincingly shown by a study by Dr. Smiley Blanton of the emotional habits of high-school and university students. Of the randomly selected high-school students studied, fully half, though perhaps doing good work, had emotional conflicts and personality difficulties that must certainly interfere with their success in life. Of one thousand randomly selected university juniors and seniors again fully half had emotional difficulties great enough to keep them from realizing their

²Clifford Shaw, *Social Factors in Juvenile Delinquency*. National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Report on the Causes of Crime, Volume II

greatest potentialities, and ten per cent had such serious maladjustments as to warp their lives, and in many cases cause serious mental breakdowns. Education of the emotions must replace the haphazard emotional development of the past. Before the schools can accept this responsibility, however, there must come sweeping changes in our philosophies of education, administrative attitudes, and teacher training and personnel.

Two conflicting philosophies dominate education today: the philosophy of education as discipline, and the philosophy of education as self-development. The philosophy of education as discipline, characteristic of the old school, emphasizes the disciplinary values, mental and moral, that derive from the mastery of subject matter, centers the educational process about the curriculum, and measures the success of the educational process in terms of the amount of information the pupil has learned. In recent years concessions have been made to the utilitarians in the so-called "socialization" of the curriculum. There has been less parsing of sentences and bounding of States, more interpretative reading and study of subways. But mastery remains the holy grail of the old school. On the other hand, the philosophy of education as self-development, characteristic of the new or progressive school, emphasizes the developmental values that are derived from self-expression, centers the educational process about the child, and measures the success of the educational process in terms of what the child has created. It has written a magna charta of childhood around the world freedom.

The virtues of these two philosophies of education have been widely heralded by their protagonists, their dangers, particularly as viewed by the mental hygienist, not so widely. Education conceived as discipline holds up to the child a predetermined pattern of experience. The child conforms or is eliminated. For those who cannot or will not conform—and most of the latter are numbered among the former—the process of elimination involves a crippling sense of frustration and defeat that leaves its scars upon

the adult personality. Yet this philosophy of education is far from dead. A prominent educator, in a recent discussion of juvenile delinquency, declared: "We need more iron in education." The great majority of our public schools, explicitly or implicitly, proceed from this philosophy.

Viewing the havoc wrought by the old schools we are likely to hail the apostle of the new school as the educational messiah. Certainly the mental hygienist would admit that from self-expression and creation are derived stabilizing life satisfactions that are the very essence of mental health; and that self-mastery, which is the basis of emotional maturity, is more likely to be achieved through experience of freedom than through conquering multiplication tables. But it is a fair question whether in their sectarian zeal many of the new schools have not carried their philosophy too far, have not held the child's unique potentialities too sacred, have not allowed the child's pursuit of self-expression to warp his estimate of himself and blind him to the implications of the fact that he must live in a social world. Certainly clinical experience with the products of certain progressive schools would make us wonder whether child-centered schools may not be creating self-centered children.

There is a third philosophy slowly working its way into educational practice, the philosophy of education as adjustment. This philosophy is neither curriculum centered nor child centered, but life centered. It views education as a process of learning to live and getting along with others. So far as discipline, knowledge, and skill contribute to this process, they are good. So far as freedom and creation contribute to this process they are good. But education so conceived is more concerned with the child's personality than with his mind or his talents, more interested in his emotional attitudes than in his abilities. It sees education as a process of socialization, and the school's function as one of continual guidance. It would measure its success solely in terms of the effectiveness of the per-

sonalities of the children who have grown up in its schools. Education conceived as adjustment, combining the virtues of old and new schools with values of its own, promises a working philosophy that will make it possible for our schools to accept the responsibility that is undoubtedly theirs.

Certain administrative attitudes also stand in the way of the schools' meeting their social obligation for the problem child. Education in a democracy stresses equality of opportunity. Equality of opportunity has too frequently been interpreted as offering all children the same sort of education, in the same amounts, and at the same cost per pupil. Every proposal for special education has been decried on the ground that it involved an expenditure of funds out of line with public policy in that it meant spending more money on the education of one child than on the education of another. We are being forced, however, to a realization of the fact that equal opportunity so interpreted means only equal opportunity to fail. Real equality of opportunity, equal opportunity to succeed within the limits of the child's natural endowments, must inevitably involve varying cost per pupil according to the individual child's potentialities and handicaps.

Finally, if the schools are to face their obligation for the problem child there must be radical changes in the selection and training of the teacher. There are many teachers in the classrooms of our schools, and many more prospective teachers in our training schools, whose personalities are so conflicted or inadequate that they are potential sources of infection to the children entrusted to their care. We have ample evidence to show that there is an appreciable relationship between the personality of the teacher and the number of behavior problems developing among her pupils. We would not hesitate to say to a teacher found to have tuberculosis: "You must leave the classroom because you are a potential source of infection to your pupils." Equally we should not hesitate to exclude from the classroom teachers whose unhealed personal prob-

lems cannot but cause problems in their pupils. Training schools must take the position now being taken by the Newark Normal School, that when they recommend a teacher they recommend her first as a personality with whom it is safe for children to live, and only secondarily as the master of a subject matter and the techniques for its teaching.

In the training of all teachers we must emphasize the whole child as a developing organism learning under the teacher's tutelage to live and get along with others, and preparing to accept the responsibilities of adult life which can only be borne by persons who are socially adequate and emotionally mature. This means not merely courses in mental hygiene, but a point of view and a background of knowledge which shall be effectively integrated with the student-teacher's practice teaching.

When our public schools, having recognized the prevention of maladjustment to be an educational problem and having accepted the responsibility this recognition implies, provide children with an education adapted to their individual needs and directed towards their successful social adjustment, it is likely that fewer adults will face life with bewilderment or resentment, that there will be empty beds in our hospitals for the insane, and empty cells in our prisons.

CHILDREN IDENTIFIED BY THEIR TEACHERS AS PROBLEMS

JULIUS YOURMAN

What are the characteristics of a "problem" child in school? What criteria do teachers use in evaluating the adjustment of children in their classes? Why do teachers consider certain types of behavior less desirable and more serious than others? In an attempt to secure answers to these and related questions, a study of maladjustment in the elementary schools of New York City was conducted.¹ Some of the findings, as they relate to the identification of children as "problems," are here presented.

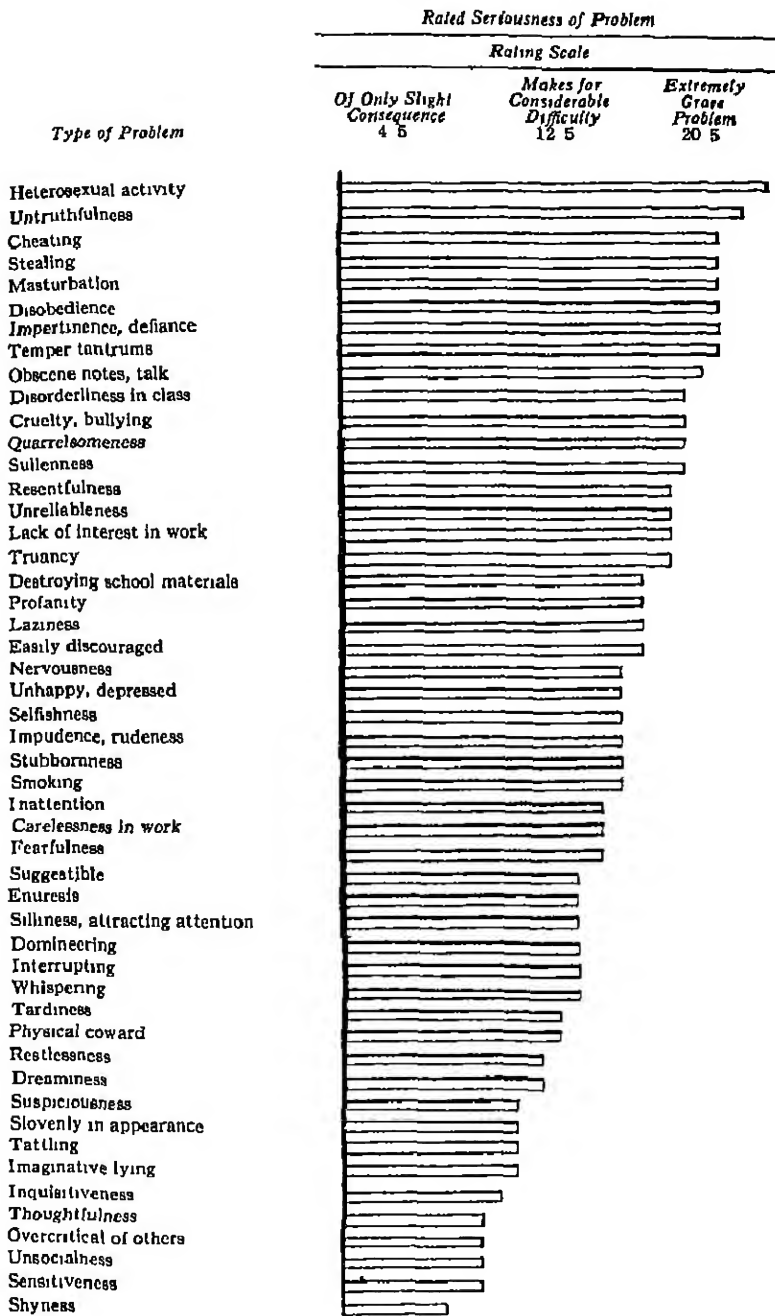
Teachers in alternate grades of twelve representative elementary schools were asked, at the end of a term, to designate the two children in each of their classes whom they considered to be outstanding behavior (not academic) problems. They reported two hundred children. The teachers were then asked to describe as concretely as possible the specific behaviors which had led them to designate these children as problems. Even a superficial reading of the resultant behavior pictures indicated that the children designated by their teachers as behavior problems had this in common—they evinced in the classroom aggressive, disturbing forms of behavior that upset the classroom routine, made them difficult to teach, and made it difficult to teach other children.

The next step in the study was an attempt to discover the criteria against which teachers judge children to be behavior problems. With this end in view teachers were asked to indicate on the Wickman rating scale of teachers' attitudes towards children's behavior how serious they considered various forms of behavior when they discovered them to be characteristic of children in their classes.² The

¹To appear as *Children With Problems, A Mental Hygiene Study of Maladjustment in the Elementary Schools of New York City*

²For a discussion of the construction, reliability, and interpretation of this scale, see E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1929)

Teachers' Ratings on the Relative Seriousness of Behavior Problems in Children



judgments of the teachers of a typical elementary school, as revealed by this scale, are given in the chart on page 335.

Study of the chart reveals (the findings of this study are consistent from school to school and with Wickman's earlier study of the attitudes of five hundred teachers) that teachers consider two sorts of behavior to constitute a serious problem—behavior which violates moral standards, and behavior which violates regulations of the school or disturbs the classroom situation; both aggressive types of behavior. The teachers' designation of individual children as problems was highly consistent with the criteria of judgment so established. Almost without exception the children designated as problems exhibited one or more of the types of behavior adjudged by the teachers as constituting a grave problem.

A third step in the study consisted of comparing the children identified as problems with a cross section of the school population. The results of this comparison as illustrated by the findings in one elementary school will be briefly presented. Four fifth grades were selected as constituting such a representative cross section (there is not space here to discuss the criteria employed in this selection). The problem children were then compared with the non-problem children as to the following factors: intelligence (individual Binets), age-grade placement (school records), social economic status (Sims score card), emotional stability (Thurstone mental-hygiene inventory), recreational and family life (schedule developed by the Committee on the Child in the Family of the White House Conference), and behavior (the Haggerty-Olsen-Wickman behavior rating scale).

The individual Binet tests revealed that the children identified as problems were a dull normal and backward group, whereas the average I.Q. of the control group of nonproblem children was 101. Seventy per cent of the problem children were retarded as against twenty-four per cent of the nonproblem children. When teachers gave detailed analyses of the behavior of problem and nonproblem

children on the Haggerty-Olsen-Wickman behavior rating scale, the problem children, as compared with the non-problem children, were rated as less intelligent, inattentive, indifferent, lazy, overactive and overtalkative, self-assertive, rude, defiant, dishonest, impatient, excitable, negativistic, and moody.

On the Thurstone inventory the responses were markedly unfavorable to the problem group on the following questions: Have you always got a square deal out of life? Do you ever feel no one understands you? Did you ever have a teacher you couldn't get along with? Do teachers tell you that you are too noisy and talk too much? Would you rather go to work now than go to school? Do people find fault with you too much? Do people say you are disobedient? Do you ever want to run away from home? Have you been punished unjustly?

The Sims score card revealed the problem children as being of lower social economic status than the nonproblem children. The White House Conference schedules revealed the problem children as coming from homes with somewhat less desirable parent-child relationships than those characterizing the homes of the nonproblem children.

The comparison of children identified by their teachers as problems with nonproblem school children shows the problem group to be dull normal in intelligence and greatly retarded educationally, to come from somewhat less desirable homes, to find school unsatisfying, to be involved in conflicts with the school and with authority generally, and to react to these conflicts with a resistant and aggressive behavior of an antisocial type.

These findings raise two interesting questions. Are teachers failing to recognize as problems many children who are problems from the mental-hygiene point of view and who are in need of individual school treatment, but whose behavior is not disturbing to the teacher? Are the schools making problems of those children who learn with difficulty? The data of this study suggest answers to both these questions.

With reference to the first question we find that almost without exception no teacher reports as a problem a child who does not display some aggressive, disturbing sort of behavior in the classroom, and that few children are reported as merely shy, unsocial, sensitive, withdrawing, nervous, fearful, oversuggestive, or unhappy. On the Wickman scale teachers uniformly scored these traits as of relatively little consequence, though a group of mental hygienists rating behavior on the same scale scored these traits as grave problems or as making for considerable difficulty. Furthermore, the visiting teachers in the New York system reported that classroom teachers as a whole did not recognize children with withdrawing, evasive personality traits as problems.

The low intelligence of the problem group (33 per cent had I Q.'s below 75, and less than 2 per cent tested above normal) and the excess of retardation among the problem group throw further light on this question. Blanchard found, in comparing cases referred to child guidance clinics in Philadelphia and Los Angeles with the general school population, that there was little difference in educational achievement between problem and nonproblem children. The clinic cases gave about the same percentage of retardation (35 per cent) as Strayer found to be typical of the country as a whole.³ Gates, in an earlier study, also found little relationship between problem behavior and educational achievement.

No gifted children were identified by the teachers in this study as problems, yet Blanchard found that the gifted contributed six times as many cases to child guidance clinics as their numbers in the school population warranted. In this connection the results of a study at the Institute of Juvenile Research in Chicago are interesting. Levy found a marked tendency for the nature of children's behavior problems to shift with increase in intelligence, conduct problems (aggressive, antisocial behavior) being characteristic of the lower ranges of I Q., and personality problems (with-

³Paynter and Blanchard, *The Educational Achievement of Problem Children* (New York Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1929)

drawing, evasive behavior) being characteristic of the higher ranges of I.Q.⁴

It would seem evident then that teachers identify as problems only those children whose behavior is aggressive and disturbing, and fail to recognize as problems (indeed, frequently consider to be well adjusted) those children whose behavior is of a withdrawing, evasive sort, though viewed with concern by mental hygienists. This difference of opinion is perhaps not surprising. The quiet, sensitive, fearful child can hardly be called a *difficult* child in the classroom; quite the contrary! However, the clinician senses in this extreme behavior pattern a tendency on the part of the child to keep his conflict within himself, to stay with it, and to intensify it. He knows that this child will seek less and less of the companionship of others and, gradually, will find himself alone against the world unless he is helped. In the light of its importance in the future life of the child, this is a very serious behavior pattern; on the basis of the difficulty it causes the teacher in the classroom, it is relatively unimportant.

The teacher's responsibility for group academic progress makes "conduct" problems more obvious and of more immediate importance than the "personality" problems of children. In practice, the teacher's professional success is based on two factors: group academic achievement and control of the class. It is expedient, therefore, to give special attention to those who interfere with either goal and to consider them as problems. Under these conditions it becomes very clear why children who have difficulty in learning and those who interfere with classroom procedure are recognized as frustrations and annoyances to the teacher and to the class, and why, occasionally, these problems become personal as well as professional difficulties to be surmounted. Similarly, the noninterfering child who is too timid to disobey presents no pressing problem to the teacher, and frequently, even though he has real diffi-

⁴John Levy, "Quantitative Study of Relationship between Intelligence and Economic Status as Factors in the Etiology of Children's Behavior Problems," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, I, 2, January, 1931

culty in learning, much is overlooked because of his goodness. The teacher generally identifies children as problems from the adult point of view; the clinician from the child's. The teacher selects *children who are problems*; the mental hygienist selects *children with problems*.

The second question raised by the data, "Are the schools making problems of those children who learn with difficulty," again makes it seem possible to answer in the affirmative. Of one hundred and twelve children, reported as "problems" by their teachers, nearly three quarters were below normal mentally. Nearly one third was so low mentally that special education is a necessity for their school adjustment, yet these children were competing with normal children on a carefully graded course of study devised for the normal child.

In the case histories of the 41 per cent who are in the dull-normal and borderline groups there is revealed with distressing regularity the practice of forced promotions after failure in a grade a second time, and the inevitable natural retardations every third term or so for these children who develop more slowly mentally than the normal child. Whether these cases are taken in the upper grades and traced backwards through their school history or whether beginning children are studied to determine their future possibilities, the effects of these experiences intimately integrated with the school adjustment of the child are evident. Space here permits but one elaboration of this important factor in a study of teachers' standards for evaluating the behavior of children.

The work of the 1A grade is based on reading in New York City as in practically all other cities. In a study of 1A children in Public School 210, Brooklyn, New York, it was found that first- and second-grade promotions are usually determined by reading ability.⁶ In large-scale investigations in several cities it was found that 99 per cent of all first-grade failures were charged to inability to

⁶Mary M. Reed, *An Investigation in First Grade Admission and Promotion*, Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 290 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927).

read.⁶ In New York City, the nonpromotion rate for the first grades in the year 1930 was about 14 per cent, twice the rate of the elementary-school system.⁷ This is not surprising since the ability to read demands a mental age of at least six years,⁸ and "about twenty-five per cent of first-grade children are below that level of mental maturity at school entrance; indeed, many of this group are still below that level at the end of the first year of school."⁹

The mental hygienist sees the first grade as a happy introduction to cooperative activities and socialization.¹⁰ But one fifth or more of the children who enter the elementary school face severe difficulties or inevitable failure as initial school experiences. The development, from this early failure, of hatred for reading, reading disabilities, and school maladjustment has been shown in many studies.¹¹ Our case studies of problem children in the first grade show that two types of reaction to unfair competition in the classroom may develop. Some children concede defeat; they refuse to take part in class work or games, they cry, and they sit very still to avoid attention which emphasizes their weaknesses. Others fight the situation. They bully, disobey, and attract attention by loud and unconventional school behavior, they steal, and they refuse to work. This behavior obscures the real reading difficulty, the teacher attends to the "conduct" problem, and little time is left to help socialize the quiet child.

⁶W. P. Percival, *A Study of Causes and Subjects of School Failure* (Berkeley: University of California Printing Office, 1926).

⁷*Thirty-Second Annual Report, Superintendent of Schools, 1929-1930*, p. 559.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 64 (New York City Course of Study in Reading).

⁹H. J. Baker, *Characteristic Differences in Bright and Dull Children* (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1927), p. 43.

¹⁰Jessie Taft, *Relation of the School to the Mental Health of the Average Child* (New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1928).

¹¹Elizabeth Dexter, *Treatment of the Child Through the School Environment* (New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1928), p. 3.

¹²H. S. Parrott, "A Happy Introduction to School Life," *Childhood Education*, VIII (April, 1931), pp. 411-414.

¹³Lois Meek, *A Study of Learning and Retention of Young Children*, Teachers College Contribution to Education (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925).

¹⁴A. L. Gates, *The Improvement of Reading* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927), p. 23.

¹⁵Phyllis Blanchard, *Reading Disabilities in Relation to Maladjustment* (New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1928).

¹⁶Phyllis Blanchard, "Attitudes and Educational Disabilities," *Mental Hygiene*, XIII (July, 1929), pp. 550-563.

¹⁷Elizabeth Hincks, *Disability in Reading and Its Relation to Personality* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1926).

Unfortunately, of the 32 "problem" children reported from the first grade not one had been given a school intelligence test although six had been tested by a psychologist from the Department of Ungraded Classes after they had failed the grade several times. The twenty-six who were given Binet intelligence tests in connection with our study, with three exceptions, showed mental abilities too low for easy success in the grade. Because the teachers were unaware of the real abilities of these children, in many cases serious misinterpretations and harmful treatment resulted when the ability of the child was inferred from his success in reading. For the child who learns to read satisfactorily at six years of age it may be said that he is of at least normal intelligence. The converse is not always true.¹² Thus problems of emotional and physical maladjustment were called educational and mental disabilities, and vice versa.

Throughout the school program limited opportunities for really understanding children, their attitudes, their home experiences, and their real abilities, and limited opportunities for providing for every child the possibilities for a happy and successful school experience must, of necessity, affect the criteria by which teachers identify a child as a "problem." There is a persistent effort in New York City to remedy these undesirable conditions which developed unrecognized during the extension and expansion of the school system. A study of retardation has been conducted; the Bureau of Child Guidance established; special services, curricula, and classes extended; and training of teachers advanced. It may be expected that teachers will change their attitudes towards children's behavior in keeping with these changing school conditions.

Our data show that children identified as "problems," who change teachers at the end of the term, have twice the chance of being considered well adjusted, and less than half the chance of continuing as very serious "problems"

¹²W. S. Gray, *Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1925), p. 51.

the next term when they are given a different teacher. The data of the study reveal no selective factor that would make the children who continue for another term with the same teacher different from those who change teachers. The individual deviations must result from differences in standards and factors relating to the personality of the teacher.

Our case studies show how vital the judgment of the teacher is to the actual adjustment of the child. As a result of it the attitudes of other teachers, classmates, parents, and relatives towards the child are largely determined, and the child's attitudes towards people and school work are influenced. Most important is the effect of the teacher's evaluation on the child's attitude towards himself, for it becomes his chief basis of self-evaluation. By the employment of the criteria against which they are picking "problem" pupils, teachers may be developing children with problems.

THE CUMULATIVE RECORD AS A FACTOR IN GUIDANCE

MILDRED FISHER

Few conceptions are dynamic enough to compel a reëvaluation of principles and practices in a whole field of human activity. Yet, during our lifetime, guidance has been just such a dynamic force and school systems far and wide have felt the resultant surge of changing educational values. Not the least among these changing values has been an appreciation of the potential contribution of an adequate pupil-record system.

NEED FOR THE GUIDANCE EMPHASIS IN RECORDS CREATED BY SOCIOLOGICAL AND EDUCATIONAL CHANGES

The indigenous rural-school teacher, who had boarded for years among the families of her pupils, knew each child in a peculiarly intimate way. She knew his academic interests and abilities from his schoolroom experience; she knew also his home and neighborhood interests from the hours she spent living with his family and taking active part in the social gatherings of the community. She saw him as a social being, building into his developing personality the patterns of behavior that were growing out of his reactions to the social and physical environment which she herself had lived in. Subjective and unrecorded as her knowledge was, it nevertheless consisted of a large slice of living reality, not only for each particular child, but often for his parents before him, and even for his children after him.

Urbanization, however, sounded the death knell of this type of teacher-pupil contact. Gradually there developed the large, consolidated schools, staffed by specialized subject teachers whose contact with children was usually limited to one teaching period a day and whose contact with the community was limited to parent-teacher association

meetings once a month. Vital personal contacts were being lost. Who, among that busy departmentalized faculty in a school of several hundred, was watching with friendly, helpful interest each child's growth over a period of years? Who knew each child well enough in all his interests and capacities to be able to help him direct his own growth intelligently?

Contemporaneous with urbanization progressed the scientific movement in education. While the great drive on subject matter and method still persisted as the core of educational concern, some interest had begun to be diverted to the objective study of children. The scientific measurement of physical differences among children; the attempts to measure differences in general and special intelligence; the realization of the importance of emotional attitudes in child growth; the reevaluation of children as social beings living significant social lives—all were successive currents of interest in an educational world that was rapidly shifting its center of gravity from subject matter to children. The scientific movement in education thus brought with it both an overwhelming confirmation of the extent of individual differences and a number of fairly reliable instruments designed to measure what these differences were. A mass of significant information about children could now be assembled with fair objectivity. But how could that information be particularized for an individual child? And, when it was, what was to be done with it? Faced with the inescapable implications of these two facts—the inevitability of larger schools and the increased knowledge of the nature and extent of individual differences—schoolmen met the challenge with administrative recognition of the need for guidance even before the tools of guidance were developed to a useful stage.

DEVELOPMENT OF RECORDS AS ONE OF THE TOOLS OF GUIDANCE

Among other things, the lack of an adequate cumulative record system threatened to make the guidance or-

ganization one of those helpless "frozen assets" so abundant today. For, by common agreement, the activities of guidance are directed through the bypaths of individual differences to the objective of wholesome, balanced development of the mental, physical, and social child. Such an objective requires for its attainment not only a study of each individual child in his many different interests and abilities over a period of years, but it also requires an assembling of this material in such form as to throw into relief the possible relationships existing among these different actual or potential factors. In this respect, a cumulative record of the "whole" child gave promise of valuable help.

But adequate cumulative record systems do not, like Topsy, "just grow." To be sure, some useful material has usually been available in one form or another. For years the medical departments have kept some records about children's physical state and development. Office clerks have long assembled subject marks for children's scholarship records. School psychologists have assembled achievement and mental-test scores for every child. Visiting teachers have been in possession of significant information about home and neighborhood conditions that children were living in. Teachers have been mentally noting the changes being built into a child's personality by his reaction to school situations. Principals have been feeling the reverberations of childish struggles against a compulsory education law on one hand, and, on the other, a school set-up unadjusted to the needs and abilities of "different" children. All of this represents valuable information, but as separate "slants" on children held by separate persons, and either recorded or unrecorded as the case might be, is it significant in such a piecemeal, desultory fashion?

No, for a child grows as a unit; he develops as an integrated organism. For that reason an apparently unimportant fact about some part of his experience may assume sudden significance if seen in the picture of his whole personality development. If the guidance objective

of helping a child to direct his growth in a wholesome, balanced way is to be attained, all this information about his many interests and capacities should be available in one place, and should show these interests and capacities not only at any one time, but also as they have developed over the period of all his years in school. The task of developing a record system which might be adequate for this purpose costs much academic time and many academic headaches, but school people have been seeing their job through in one way or another.

There is no perfect cumulative record fit for all localities, but there may well be a different record for each local school situation arising out of the needs of that particular locality. Whatever record there is will probably be best developed by a pooling of experience among administrators and teachers of each school unit in any school system concerned. The essential principles to consider in any case seem to be, first, that the record should make provision for the assembling of information about the "whole" child; and second, that its cumulative characteristic should place the emphasis upon growth, but not in such a way as to interfere with its usefulness as a tool for guidance at any time during a child's school history. During one whole year administrators and teachers from all school units in the South Orange-Maplewood school system struggled in committee sessions towards agreement on the material and form of a suitable cumulative record. The room in which the committee met was peopled with ghosts; the ghosts of school children summoned from the depths of teaching experience to help teachers and principals determine what knowledge had been useful in helping children. As a result of these experiences, the following general forces were finally recognized as significant in the growth of children: social and economic background of the family and neighborhood; health history or physical development; apparent potentialities for nonacademic and academic work, and actual achievements; vocational and avocational interests; extracurricular experiences; and

personality patterns as evidenced by subjective interactions in the field of human relationships. From this general classification of factors influential in child growth was organized the special material arrangement for the cumulative record. One sheet, nine by twelve inches in size, was planned for the test and measurement record on the left half; and the scholarship record on the right. A second sheet was planned for social and health history on the left; and personality comments on the right. The third sheet was divided between what, for lack of a better name, was termed vocational interests, and the conference record. A manila folder, nine and one-quarter by eleven and one-quarter inches, completed the general packet ensemble.

As always, the difficulty of deciding upon the general organization paled into insignificance beside the grueling task of determining the specific detailed items to be noted under each main division. The committee in charge scanned hundreds of records assembled from different school systems; it even enlisted the aid of certain helpful departments of national organizations. But in the end, progress was largely made possible because of the ability of the committee to draw from its own experience with thousands of growing children those factual details which had been found most helpful in actual cases of child adjustment.

ANALYSIS AND JUSTIFICATION OF DETAILED ITEMS INCLUDED ON RECORD FORMS

A public-school record form designed as one aid in the adjustment of all school children requires a different type of material from that needed by a clinic record form useful in correcting the extreme deviations of acute problem cases. To be of value to a public-school guidance organization, a record must contain material primarily useful in so directing the processes of child growth that children do not become clinic problems. For the activities of guidance are concerned with the task of keeping growing children in adjustment with their ever-changing environment; and in this constructive, developmental process, covering

the entire span of school life for every child, the cumulative record must provide helpful information. The material useful in this process is of course useful in interpreting and correcting ordinary cases of school maladjustment, but serious persistent cases of acute maladjustment belong properly in the hands of specialists, and here the ordinary school record is rightfully inadequate. Not a record system built around the clinic type of problem case, but a record system built around the adjustment needs of all growing children—this was the criterion against which every detailed item was checked before it was finally included on the record forms.

Test and Measurement Record Items: On the test and measurement form appear space for recording the results of measurement of academic ability with two standardized, objective instruments—mental tests and achievement tests. The intelligence test results are recorded in terms of score, chronological age, mental age, and intelligence quotient. The name of test, date given, and the grade and school the child was in when tested are included. A final entry, known as intelligence rank, is made on the basis, not of national scores, but of scores in this particular school system. Thus, an intelligence quotient of 100 interpreted in terms of a national distribution ranks as average; but in a school system where the median intelligence quotient for 6,000 children is 115, the intelligence rank of a 100 intelligence quotient is below average. Since a child is commonly judged, not in a mythical national setting, but in the community or school setting where he actually lives and works, his intelligence ranking in that local setting is as important to know as his ranking in nation-wide distribution. Similarly, achievement-tests scores on a nationally standardized achievement test are particularly significant when transmuted into score rankings for a whole grade in the school system concerned. For example, an average national ranking in the arithmetic-reasoning part of a Stanford achievement test would give a false picture indeed if the actual ranking of that score

were in the lowest ten per cent of all pupils in the school system where the child was doing his school work. For after all, the growing child faces the problem of adjusting to the environment he is living in; and only as his place in that environment is understood can he be helped to make better adjustment. With achievement tests given annually to all children from the fourth to the ninth grades, and with several different mental tests given each pupil beginning with the kindergarten year, the guidance records contain measurement material useful at any stage in a child's school history. As time goes on and the measurements increase in number, the record picture becomes increasingly valuable both in reliability of results and in perspective of growth over a period of years.

The extremely high correlation between mental-test and achievement-test rankings raises the question as to the need for both measurements. A high correlation is essentially a group to group relationship which is meaningless in individual cases. Guidance is concerned with individual children and therefore cannot afford to rely upon a theory of group correlations. An intelligence quotient of 140, with achievement-test ratings of C or D in each of the ten subtests, gives a picture of an individual problem that would have been quite obscured by the assumption that either one measurement or the other would have been sufficient because of the demonstrated high group correlation. Further, the intelligence quotient is a general measure undifferentiated and unparticularized; the achievement-test scores in ten specific fields furnish an instrument for individual, differential diagnosis in each case.

Mental-test scores and achievement-test scores are not important as ends in themselves. They are important only as two factors in a highly complex assortment of many factors significant in the development of children. Even at that, the supposedly objective test and measurement sheet include another item that indicates an extremely healthy state of mind on the measurement subject. This item is called the teacher's judgment of the child's "scho-

lastic aptitude." This is a frankly subjective ranking of the same ability which the mental test is supposed to rank objectively. It appears on the record, not as an insult to mental tests, but as an admission that either an objective or a subjective judgment alone is less adequate than both would be together.

Scholarship-Record Items: Space for subject marks from first grade through the twelfth grade is provided each year on the scholarship record. On the secondary-school level no attempt is made to show "credits" or to give other than year marks because the guidance organization is interested in the story of scholarship as read over a period of years. Again the emphasis for guidance is an emphasis upon adjustment and growth. The scholarship record appears on the same sheet as the test and measurement record because a thorough study of the academic child requires a knowledge of the relationship between the two.

Vocation-Record Items: Beginning with the seventh grade, notations are made annually on the records about each pupil's educational and vocational ambitions; his special interests; his outside employment experience; and his school-activities experience. What is recorded is no more important than the fact that in order to do the recording each teacher makes the acquaintance of her pupils along other than academic lines. Similarly it is valuable for children to realize that the school considers other experiences and activities worth while as well as the traditional bookwork. Many a teacher has been able to "reach" a child by showing interest in his hobby of boat racing or stamp collecting or whatever it may be. Many a socially starved child has tasted the first tonic of extracurricular success due to the encouragement of a teacher who had noticed a telltale record of blank spaces after "school-activities experiences." The nucleus of a wholesome, balanced personality rich because of varied experience and interests may be watched taking form in the successive entries on this record.

Conference-Record Items: There come times in a child's school history when he stands at the crossroads, unable to make real progress until he has chosen or changed his objective. It may be a matter of attitude towards people or things; perhaps a matter of behavior; perhaps a matter of vocational preparation. Whatever it is, anything that affects a child's growth is important enough to call for the cooperative consideration of a conference among those interested. Significant remarks, attitudes, or decisions made in such conferences are recorded, signed, and dated as milestones on the road to adjustment—or maladjustment.

Social- and Health-History Record Items: The habits and attitudes built into a child by his home environment are the habits and attitudes that color his school reactions. No guidance organization can hope to be effective without some understanding of the forces that have been at work in a family for years creating and setting the personality patterns that vary with each child. Knowledge of parent nationality, for instance, indicates the presence or absence of the element of foreignness in the child's upbringing. That fact itself may be unimportant in many cases; but there will always be a sufficient number of adjustment problems created by the resulting conflict of behavior standards in certain settings to warrant the inclusion of parent nationality on the record. Similarly, knowledge of the habitual use of a foreign language in family conversation may be unimportant in some cases; but again there will be times when that fact alone serves to interpret mental-test scores or evidences of specific language disability. Information about the occupational status of both parents gives an idea of the economic background of the family as well as the possible problem of child supervision involved when both parents work all day. The place of the child among the various personalities of the family group is partly shown by an understanding of the number and relative age of other children in the family. The influences of a family environment are different indeed when a certain

child is the oldest of a family of seven; or the only school child in a family of grown-up wage earners; or an only child; or a former "baby" of the family suddenly dethroned by the appearance of a stepmother with younger children of her own. Complicate any one of the many possible family relationships with the personality strain involved in long-continued family illness or in attempted amalgamation of two different generations under one roof, and again appear influences that may have significance in a child's school history. Each item on the social record is a brush that paints with different lights and shadows the picture of a child in his family setting—a picture no one interested in child guidance can afford to overlook.

In an attempt to understand the adjustment problems of the physical child, items appear on the record rating general health as average, above average, or below average; and rating physical development as immature, normal, or overmature. Marked deviations from the average or normal in either of these phases represent important information in the developmental history of growing children. The adjustment problems involved with a child too immature for the social group he is classified with or the problem involved with a child overmature for the social group he is classified with present familiar patterns to experienced teachers. Notations of the physical defects and periods of prolonged absence are also made on the health record.

On the bottom of the social and health history sheet appears the following item: "If you have additional personal knowledge of this child that might be of school service, or if you know of some one else who has, please sign below the name of person informed." This is a recognition of the fact that there are some things that should not be written on a public-school record and yet may be important to know as background if serious problems of adjustment are met later in the child's development.

Personality-Record Items: Of course it is difficult to

judge personality because it is difficult to define personality. Still there must be a fairly common conception of what is meant by the term because adults do, as a matter of fact, both make and accept judgments of this type in the contacts of daily life.

A guidance organization is not primarily interested in defining the metaphysical abstractions of the term personality; it is interested in objectifying personality enough so that it becomes a reality which can be influenced by directed experience. To assure some common agreement for the purposes of the guidance record, the South Orange-Maplewood school staff split the concept of personality into four subdivisions: a child's attitude towards himself; his attitude towards other people; his work habits; his breadth of interests. Concrete examples of classroom behavior related to each subdivision were listed in an attempt to clarify further the meaning of personality as well as to objectify constructive measures that might be used to develop personality. With this material as a basis for thought teachers enter on the child's records each year a subjective estimate of the child's personality for the sole purpose of making possible a greater school contribution to that child's further growth. Careful instruction is given in explaining what should not be recorded as well as what should be recorded. The criterion against which every teacher is asked to check her comments before including them on the record is: Will this aid in directing the processes of child adjustments? Each entry is signed by the teacher making the estimate. The teachers make their entries independently of previous estimates and the statements are usually written into the record by persons other than those making the comments.

These personality-record items indicate, as all the other record items do, how successfully or unsuccessfully the committee followed its original plan—that of building a record system, not around the clinic type of problem case, but around the adjustment needs of all growing children

USE OF THE RECORDS IN GUIDANCE

A child walking into a schoolroom seems to present a rather simple, obvious picture; but in reality, amazingly complex and dramatic forces are silently accompanying him. If only one were gifted enough, in the manner of Robert Edmond Jones, to create the symbolic imagery of the unseen! For that child—and every child—brings with him as inescapable as his shadow the integrated result of his several years of living; the built-in patterns of hopes and fears, resentments and conformities, set by thousands upon thousands of previous reactions to many different people and situations. He brings with him not only himself but in part his family and home, his friends, and his neighborhood. The bitterness of his failures; the tonic of his successes—all that he and experience together have made of him so far, and are making of him—all of these shadow him into the schoolroom.

As the living child represents the integration of many different forces which have touched his life, so an adequate cumulative record represents the integration of the many specialized functions of the school organization. An effective guidance-record system swings the whole school staff into line as active contributors in the task of assembling information about the "whole" child, and in the task of using that information constructively to help each child make the most of himself.

The intelligent use of a public-school cumulative record system rests squarely upon the shoulders of all teachers, just as all guidance activities do. The services of specialists are always supplementary, not substitutive. School administrators are realizing at last that most teachers (and all good teachers) choose their work because they like children. The guidance movement rescued the teachers of large, departmentalized schools from the dry rot of a subject-matter specialization divorced from vital, personal contacts with children. If the cumulative pupil record has done nothing else, it has saved teachers from professional

suicide. It has put back into their hearts the secure conviction that their main objective is to help children "grow." It has put into their hands an instrument which makes possible some continuity of personal friendship and interest between teacher and pupil.

Glance at a typical daily scene in the office room where all the cumulative records for the whole school are kept. There sits a homeroom teacher, quietly studying the histories of her homeroom pupils, making the mental reservations or additions dictated by her experience so far in living with the group. That homeroom will never know how, in numerous ways, their school lives will be brightened because of what Miss C is thinking as she studies their cumulative records. John Smith's face will some day light with unexpected pleasure in answer to a question about his favorite hobby of wood carving. Timid little Agnes Brown will be joining a dramatic club under the encouragement of her friendly homeroom teacher. Bobby, one of a family of seven whose father has been out of a job, will soon be working on the lunchroom committee and earning his daily hot lunch. Subject teachers who have been complaining about Sam's resentful attitude will know about the new stepmother who has just arrived at his home. Here sits a subject teacher scanning the records of pupils in her first-period English class. She, too, studies all the sheets carefully, as genuinely absorbed in home background, personality development, and special interests, as she is in the diagnostic possibilities of achievement-test ratings in word meaning, paragraph meaning, literature, and language usage. The classroom echoes from her morning visit in the guidance-record room will not be confined to individual remedial work along subject-matter lines. Those English project committees will be headed by children who need the experience of leadership. Those pupils who will never be able to obtain much emotional satisfaction from their academic subject achievements will still find in the English classroom other satisfactions that will make life in that class worth living. Over in the extreme

corner of the room sit five teachers, earnestly talking to a class guide who has several records spread out on the table. This is a case of sudden complete academic failure. But the test and measurement records show intelligence quotients, derived from five different tests, with approximate median of 145. Stanford achievement subtest ratings with several different test forms show A or B+ ratings. Previous school marks have been high. The social and health history records reveal two possibly significant items: a three-month-old baby is the only other child in the family; in the past year the school nurse noted a physical condition of 15 pounds underweight. Personality comments reveal wholesome development except for a gradual withdrawal from social contacts, and a decided narrowing of interest. Obviously the academic failure is but a symptom of deeper maladjustment. Is this a case for immediate psychiatric treatment, or should the school first try out its usual constructive measures such as schedule change, section change, school-activity participation, periodic conferences, etc.? The teachers leave the question to the class guide, who in turn waits for the principal to pass judgment.

But at the moment, the principal is called to another conference. Follow him into his office, where he sits reading aloud to a probation officer portions of two cumulative records he is studying. The drab fact of the bicycle theft by Dan becomes illumined by the interplay of human motives. The family picture shows Dan as the stepson of the mother; Dan's younger brother, in the same school, is the mother's own son. The bicycle was stolen from the younger brother and sold for cash. This was the climax of a series of stealing offenses limited entirely to thefts from the stepmother or stepbrother. Investigation reveals that the "own" son has had a bicycle for years; the stepson none. The "own" son has a weekly allowance; the stepson none. The "own" son is successful in academic work; the stepson is not and can never be. Shall the stepmother's request for Dan's commitment to a parental home be granted? The principal and probation officer, watching relationships

between the cumulative record histories of Dan and his stepbrother, do not see the case as one of budding criminality. They see it as the case of a boy deprived of the normal emotional satisfactions which make life enjoyable and therefore seeking through wrong channels the satisfactions he cannot get from the right channels

Every day similar scenes in the record-file room testify to the fact that cumulative records are being used as active aids in the encouragement of child development and adjustment. In general, the cumulative record plays an important part in child guidance by helping the school personnel:

1. To understand better the physical, social, and mental characteristics of each child.
2. To understand better how a child has developed or failed to develop in reacting to school experiences over a period of years, and through that understanding to help him direct his growth.
3. To adjust more effectively school activities, school departments, and school schedules to the needs, interests, and capacities of children.
4. To help pupils adjust more quickly in the changes from elementary school to junior high, junior high to senior high, and senior high to advanced schools.
5. To make possible a more intelligent choice on the part of the child through more intelligent advice on the part of the school in the selection of vocational or advanced education opportunities.
6. To provide a tool for use in follow-up of pupil progress in advanced educational institutions or vocations.

Thus all the teachers, principals, and guides—in fact any one in the school system who deals directly with children—will find the use of the cumulative records one of those challenging daily activities which raises teaching above the level of skilled artisanship.

THE DEPARTMENT OF CHILD GUIDANCE OF THE NEWARK PUBLIC SCHOOLS

BRUCE B. ROBINSON

In 1918 the Newark public schools organized a special department known as the "Psycho-Educational Clinic." The Clinic, its personnel consisting of two psychologists and one clerk, served the public schools through the mental testing of certain problem children and by the identifying of those pupils whose poor learning ability made it necessary for them to be educated through the medium of special classes. This Clinic was highly centralized and with its small personnel was able to do no more than to meet the emergency cases which usually arose in connection with delinquent or classroom-disturbing behavior.

In 1923 there was organized under the county the Essex County Juvenile Clinic with Dr. James S. Plant as director. The primary purpose of this county clinic was to give psychiatric service to the juvenile court. Clinical service was also extended to social agencies and to the public schools of the county. The public schools of the city of Newark took advantage of this clinical opportunity and the number of cases referred to this county clinic increased rapidly from year to year. The clinic also served the school system of other municipalities of the county

With the increasing recognition by the Newark schoolmen of the value of such clinical service it was decided by the Board of Education to organize, within the school system of Newark, a department to give such psychiatric clinical service. It was decided by the Board that the director of the new department should be a psychiatrist and one trained in child guidance clinics. The director was appointed in February 1926 and to him was delegated the responsibility of planning the organization of

the department, working out with the school executives the policies of the department, setting up the requirements for personnel, and selecting and recommending psychiatric social workers and psychologists who fulfilled the requirements. In March 1926 the head visiting teacher was appointed together with one psychologist and one visiting teacher. Little clinical work was attempted during the first five months of the Clinic's operation, the time being devoted to developing organization and policies and to acquainting the director and the head visiting teacher with the social resources of Newark, with the institutions of the city, county, and State, and with the organization and personnel of the public-school system.

The original budget of the department was approximately \$35,000 and the personnel on duty with the department at the beginning of the fall term included the director, the head psychologist, the head visiting teacher, two assistant psychologists, four visiting teachers, and two clerks. This year (1931-1932) the budget is approximately \$66,000 and the personnel includes four psychologists, thirteen visiting teachers, and five clerks. It is estimated that an adequate staff for this school system of 80,000 pupils would include two psychiatrists, twenty-five visiting teachers, and seven psychologists.

One of the first-adopted policies of the department was to put the emphasis upon work with children in the kindergarten and primary grades. It was felt that early recognition and treatment of behavior disorders and of scholastic difficulty was necessary if the greatest benefit to the child and to the school was to be derived from clinic operation. With younger children better results could be secured in treatment with the investment of less time and thus more pupils could receive the benefit of clinic operation. During the first two years of the department's existence over sixty per cent of the cases handled were less than nine years of age. The high schools, on the other hand, have received practically no service from the de-

partment. One senior high school has on its staff a full-time psychiatric social worker called "school counselor." This social worker acts along the lines of visiting-teacher work but has in addition responsibility for educational and vocational guidance.

The director of the department in addition to his executive responsibilities serves as psychiatrist. Psychiatric examinations are made as part of full clinic studies. The psychiatrist also serves in a consultant capacity to the visiting teachers and to the psychologists on cases that he himself has not examined. The psychiatrist is also a consultant in neurology to the schools' department of health education. In this capacity he sees all cases of epilepsy and chorea. The psychiatrist gives physical examinations to those cases handled by the department that are less than eleven years of age. Experience indicates that better contact is made by the psychiatrist with these younger patients if the physical examination begins the interview rather than a period of discussion in the psychiatrist's office—the latter procedure being too reminiscent apparently of disciplinary appearances in the school office.

In the typical child guidance clinic every case handled by the department receives full clinic service; that is, a psychiatrist of the clinic sees every case with the result that the number of cases to be handled by the clinic is limited by the number of cases that the psychiatrist can examine. With a clientele of 80,000 pupils such intensive service was regarded as impractical. To give increased service a visiting-teacher organization was adopted. Under such organization the visiting teachers of the department are assigned to two schools each and have offices in those schools. Problem children recognized by those schools are referred directly to the visiting teacher and not to the department office. It is for the visiting teacher to decide whether the case will be accepted and the type of service which will be given to the case. It is the experience of the department that a well-trained psychiatric social

worker experienced in work in the schools can handle two thirds of her cases without the need of full clinic study. Most of these visiting-teacher cases do receive psychological examinations because of the importance in all school cases of proper scholastic adjustment. Another procedure which allows the department to handle a larger number of cases is the preparation of a summary type of social history. Social histories are usually from two to five pages in length. It will be recognized that only an experienced worker who has practised the art can safely and adequately summarize in so few pages the mass of information secured at the home and at the school. The requirements for a visiting teacher are: college graduation, experience in either teaching or in social work, completion of a course in psychiatric social work, and a type of personality consistent with success in psychiatric social work in a school system. Staff meetings on cases studied are held at the request of the visiting teacher and are always attended by the principal and teachers from that school. These staff meetings may be held at the central office or at the school.

The psychologists are also given a great deal of independent responsibility in their work. The requirements for clinical psychologist in the department of child guidance are: college graduation, a master's degree in clinical psychology, and one year of clinical experience under supervision. The schools of the city are divided among the four psychologists of the department and each is responsible for the development of as adequate a service as possible to the schools assigned to her. The psychologist must work out a program of testing in the schools, must select cases to be tested, and the basis of limiting intake, since the department can give little more than half the psychological service which the schools require. The psychologist is also responsible for the report to the school of the findings and for the working out of proper treatment procedures. She must know thoroughly the resources of the individual

schools as well as of the school system so that her recommendations may be possible of fulfillment. She must arrange staff meetings for the discussion of individual cases and certain typical cases, and for the purpose of instructing the school faculties in the full utilization of the psychological service of the department. Psychological testing is carried on both at the school and at the department offices. Types of cases to be referred to the psychologist are outlined in a pamphlet furnished to the teachers.

The department carries on no adequate program in educational and vocational guidance since it is felt that individual studies along clinical lines for the purpose of educational and vocational guidance should await the development in the school of the necessary guidance procedure and courses; e.g., courses which acquaint all of the students in eighth grade with the types of courses offered in high school and vocational school, the basis for deciding which course a student should accept, and other courses for "orientation in industry."

Group tests in the Newark public schools are given by the department of reference and research. In addition to the usual use of such tests by the schools, the department of child guidance uses these tests for selecting those pupils in the primary grades who need individual psychological examinations, either because special class placement is indicated or because there is a marked discrepancy between ability as indicated by the group test and the child's classroom accomplishment.

One of the opportunities and responsibilities of the department is found in the study of those factors which are productive of distress to large groups of the school population, and in the reporting of those factors to the proper administrative officers. The department reports, for example, such observation as that over seventy per cent of cases of truancy referred for clinic study are seriously maladjusted in grade and that both treatment and pre-

vention of such cases calls for the providing of an academic program which supplies to such students interest, success, and steady progress through the grades. Another such recommendation would be based upon the finding of many children whose school difficulties are complicated by some special scholastic defect, as in reading, and whose treatment calls for regular and adequate tutoring service in the schools. The responsibility of the department in this connection is for the reporting of clinical findings and for a statement of group needs as seen from clinic experience and not at all for any recommendation as to the administrative or educational procedure to be adopted for the meeting of such group needs.

The department feels that it is important that the psychiatric and psychological work being carried on in the schools should be regarded as only a part of the mental-hygiene program of the school system. The mental-hygiene program of the schools is a responsibility, not of the Department of Child Guidance, but of all school executives and all classroom teachers. The mental-hygiene program must include consideration of those pupils who have become seriously maladjusted during, or because of, their school experience, but the mental-hygiene program is concerned much more with the problem of furnishing healthful, day-to-day experience to a whole school population. The mental-hygiene program attempts to work out for our pupils a school experience conducive to the best personality development. Discipline is a mental-hygiene problem. Discouragement, failure, school work which is not made interesting, and school activities which do not seem worth while to the pupil, are mental-hygiene problems, and the elimination of these problems is a part of the schools' mental-hygiene program.

The finest mental-hygiene development in the past six years in the Newark schools has not been the organization of a department for psychiatric-psychological service, but the construction and adoption by the schools of a new pri-

mary curriculum which recognizes the pupil's right to, and need of, work suited to his ability, interesting work, and a classroom atmosphere of freedom and activity. Under this new program, so valuable for mental health, no child can fail of promotion in the first grade. (Past averages for first-grade failure have run from twenty-five to thirty per cent.) The prevention of that amount of crippling at school entrance is a major mental-hygiene accomplishment. It is only through the working out of such items in a mental-hygiene program that public-school education can grow away from a consideration of only scholastic work and develop a recognition that education has a primary interest in personality development, and a realization of the responsibility which rests upon the public schools as the largest, most important mental-hygiene agency in the community.

DEPARTMENT OF CHILD GUIDANCE STATISTICAL REPORT

TABLE I

Visiting Teacher Service 1930-1931

Cases carried over from last year..	605
New cases	510
Cases under treatment during the year	1115
Cases closed during June 1931.. . . .	609
Average number of cases handled by each visiting teacher per month	58
Interviews with parents	3046
Interviews with principals	1007
Interviews with vice principals	539
Interviews with teachers	6252
Interviews with children	5191
Interviews with others	2091
Group conferences with teachers	100
Group conferences with parents.	46

Figures do not include those short service cases which are handled through a brief contact with parent or teacher, but which are a valuable part of the department's service to the schools.

TABLE II

Psychological Service 1930-1931

Total Number of Individual Examinations Per Type

	1930-31	(1929-30)
Psychological	1332	(1014)
Attendance department	286	(225)
Visiting teacher	270	(399)
Full study	89	(152)
Total	1977	(1790)

TABLE III

Distribution According to Grade

Grade	Psychological No Per Cent	Attendance No Per Cent	V T—Full Service No Per Cent	Total No Per Cent
Kg	28 2 1	0 0	22 6 1	50 2 5
I	403 30 3	3 1 0	48 13 4	454 23 0
II	3 5 24 4	10 3 5	35 9 7	370 18 7
III	197 14 8	31 11 0	42 11 7	270 13 7
IV	124 9 3	49 17 1	48 13 4	221 11 2
V	69 5 2	51 17 8	44 12 3	164 8 3
VI	42 3 2	66 23 0	38 10 6	146 7 4
VII	26 2 0	37 12 9	45 12 5	108 5 5
VIII	12 9	18 6 3	21 5 0	51 2 6
H S	10 7	14 4 9	10 2 8	34 1 7
Special	33 2 4	0 0	6 1 7	39 2 0
Binet	3 2	3 1 0		6 3
Ungraded	9 7	4 1 4		13 7
None	61 3 8			51 2 6
	1332	286	359	1977

TABLE IV

Distribution According to I Q

I Q	Psychological No Per Cent	Attendance No Per Cent	V T—Full Service No Per Cent	Total No Per Cent
49	46 3 5	3 1 0	2 5	51 2 6
50-69	309 23 2	58 20 3	24 6 7	391 19 8
70-84	630 47 3	112 39 2	81 23 6	823 41 6
85-94	227 17 0	72 25 2	79 22 0	378 19 1
95-104	82 6 0	23 8 0	77 21 4	182 9 2
105-114	28 2 0	10 3 6	68 16 2	96 4 8
115-124	6 5	7 2 4	27 7 5	40 2 0
125	4 3	1 3	11 3 0	16 8
	1332	286	359	1977

TABLE V

Distribution by Sex

Boys	68 per cent
Girls	32 per cent

TABLE VI

Recommendations

Exclusion	25
State institution	12
Institutional class at 18th Avenue	22
Binet class	579
Special opportunity class	105
Slow section	691
Average section	387
Bright section ..	124
Vocational school ...	66
Continuation school ..	49
High school	4
Work ..	28
Special help ..	46
Special promotion ...	29
School for crippled	16
School for deaf. ...	6
School for blind	2
Sight conservation . .	10
Speech class . .	6
Special schools for boys..	5
<hr/>	
Total . . .	2112

PHYSICALLY AND MENTALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN: A PROGRAM FOR THEIR ADJUSTMENT

WILLIAM J. ELLIS

This country suffers an enormous loss, both economic and social, from adult handicapped persons who through lack of proper training facilities have become, to a degree, dependent.¹ The potential problem of handicapped children threatens to be still more serious, due to the growing complexity of our daily life and the increasing demand of industry for the capable and alert. Among the handicapped in America today there are large numbers of children who are now or will later become social and economic liabilities unless society's attitude towards the physically and the mentally handicapped becomes wholly constructive.

A majority of physically and mentally handicapped children possess aptitudes and abilities which, when developed by proper social, academic, and vocational training can make these children socially and economically competent. To every child we owe the opportunity to develop to the maximum of his capacity. It is our particular duty to see that physically or mentally handicapped children have this opportunity, as a matter of right and fair play, in order to conserve human resources and to afford protection against dependency, pauperism, frustration, and delinquency. The waste of ability involved in our present laissez faire policy warrants our putting forth every effort in behalf of physically and mentally handicapped children, and demands that we supply such facilities that they may have a thorough preparation for community life. The

¹The program presented herewith is the outgrowth of the work of the Committee on the Physically and Mentally Handicapped of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, William J. Ellis, chairman. The following subcommittees were concerned with particular phases, The Deaf and Hard of Hearing, Josephine B. Timberlake, chairman, The Visually Handicapped (blind and partially seeing), Robert B. Irwin, chairman, The Crippled, Harry H. Howett, chairman, Internal Conditions, LeRoy Wilkes, chairman, Problems of Mental Health, Lawson G. Lowrey, chairman, Problems of Mental Deficiency, E. R. Johnstone, chairman, and the Vocational Adjustment of Physically and of Mentally Handicapped Children, Emil Frankel, research secretary.

most immediate objective in dealing with the handicapped children is the determination of their numbers, the discovery of the extent to which their needs are being met, and of the facilities necessary to meet their needs.

TEN MILLION HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

The large number of handicapped children in the United States indicates that the problem of the handicapped child is by no means a minor one. It is estimated that there are more than ten million children in the United States who are handicapped in the sense in which the term is here used; *i.e.*, children who are blind and partially seeing, deaf and hard of hearing, crippled, mentally deficient or disordered, or suffering from tuberculosis, parasitic, and cardiac diseases. A recent study to determine the number of atypical children requiring special class provisions in the school systems indicates that nearly eight per cent of the school population is mentally or physically handicapped.

These figures indicate that the problem of the handicapped child is of sufficient scope and interest to challenge the efforts of all intelligent, thinking persons. Although the movement in behalf of these children is progressing with an acceleration that is encouraging, the results are as yet far from satisfactory. This is due primarily to lack of scientific knowledge of the problem and to lack of adequate facilities for diagnosis, treatment, and training.

WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE RECOMMENDATIONS

The Committee on the Physically and Mentally Handicapped of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection formulated its recommendations for future activities on the following principle: Like every child, the child who may have some physical or mental handicap is to be regarded as a potential social asset and not as a liability. The handicapped child should be so guided that his aptitudes and abilities may be given the fullest possible development and that his life may be one of usefulness, success, and happiness.

The question of what we shall do to ameliorate the condition of the handicapped child is complicated and demands comprehensive research. It involves problems of the physical care of the child in schools, institutions, and in the home. It involves problems of his education, both general and vocational, and it involves also problems of social training and adjustment. The specific recommendations for curative and remedial treatment must be decided by the needs of the individual case and must be made in the light of the best scientific knowledge on the subject.

Perhaps the most important phase of a program for physically and mentally handicapped children is their education. The medical approach to the handicapped necessarily emphasizes their defects, but an educational approach to their problems begins with an inventory of their assets and builds upon these assets. This whole group of children is coming to be regarded as a stimulating challenge to educational methods instead of as a load to be carried with pessimistic fortitude.

In the education of handicapped children there must be a differentiation of methods and procedures to provide the special kind of education required by their special needs. In view of the relatively longer period of preparation for life's work necessary in the case of handicapped children and because of the somewhat restricted range of employment opportunity open to them, a restatement of the aim of education for them may seem advisable. In any such restatement emphasis should be given to the need for vocational training including preparation for professional, commercial, and industrial pursuits depending upon the degree and nature of the handicap, and to the adaptation of the curriculum, subject matter, and methods necessary to meet the aim.

The successful vocational adjustment of the handicapped child is the practical test of any program formulated for the child. The recommendations of the committees leading towards vocational adjustment are fourfold: guidance, training, placement, and follow-up.

PROPER GUIDANCE ESSENTIAL

The vocational guidance of the physically and mentally handicapped should be directed primarily by the aptitudes and abilities of the child, never losing sight of the handicaps that are involved. Skillful guidance should lead the child into those fields in which his handicap will not forbid equal competition with the normal or even into those in which it may be an asset. Such guidance must necessarily be given by well-trained and competent counselors who will direct the attention of the handicapped child away from what he cannot do to what he can do, specialize on strength rather than on weakness, give him an opportunity to participate in social activities while he is in school similar to those in which he will participate when he leaves school. Vocational training related definitely to local industrial, commercial, and professional opportunities is the best guarantee of a specific kind of employment. Such training can often be given in part within the public-school system and through the utilization of special schools. For a large number, however, training on the job must be arranged.

The employment of the physically and of the mentally handicapped child of working age would seem to proceed on three levels, viz.: (1) those who are able to work in regular industrial, commercial, or professional pursuits alongside of the normal worker and on an economic competitive basis, (2) those who are able to work only in a sheltered environment; e g., a subsidized workshop, (3) those who are unable to travel to and from work and therefore must work in their homes, with materials and finished products delivered for them.

In developing these employment opportunities, industry becomes the focal point for the first level of employability. The program of providing fair opportunities for useful and profitable employment for the physically or mentally handicapped child of working age is based on the philosophy that any handicapped person who can, despite his handicap, perform a particular job as well as normal persons has a right to employment, and further-

more, if he can compete with the able-bodied, should be guaranteed employment. Industry is often open-minded, willing to be convinced of the feasibility of employing the handicapped. If it can be demonstrated to industry that a physically or mentally handicapped young person who has been adequately prepared can do as well as the normal worker, industry will not be slow in providing employment opportunities.

There are also many tasks in city, State, and Federal establishments that could be effectively performed by the physically and the mentally handicapped. A comprehensive survey of these positions should be made with a view of filling them as far as is practicable with the physically and the mentally handicapped.

The ultimate social and economic adjustment of the handicapped child depends to a large extent upon the attitude which he has towards his handicap, his associates, and the work he is to do. Social contacts are needed in order to enable the child to acquire favorable attitudes. Such contacts instill self-confidence, good morale, and a spirit of independence. There must be opportunity for physically or mentally handicapped children to have social contacts with normal children as well as with other handicapped persons.

PREVENTION

Amelioration of the condition of the handicapped child is of great importance. But even more important is the prevention of handicaps. Proper medical care of the individual cases can do much, and improvement in public-health work has a considerable value. Yet much remains to be learned before a large reduction in the total number of cases of physical and mental disabilities can be accomplished.

As a fundamental step in the formulation of any preventive program research must be carried on in many parts of the field. There is no handicapped group which is so well under control that it does not require research in practically every phase of the problem, especially in

the preventive aspect. It would seem important for the White House Conference to find a way to continue the study on facilities, employment, costs, accomplishments, and results, and the possibilities of prevention.

One of the most vital phases of a program for dealing with the handicapped is the development of a constructive attitude as to the debt and the opportunity we owe to physically and mentally handicapped children.

"If we want civilization to march forward it will march not only on the feet of healthy children, but beside them, shoulder to shoulder, must go those others—those children we have called 'handicapped'—the lame ones, the blind, the deaf, and those sick in body and mind. All these children are ready to be enlisted in this moving army, ready to make their contribution to human progress; to bring what they have of intelligence, of capacity, of spiritual beauty. American civilization cannot ignore them.

"The handicapped child has a right: (1) to as vigorous a body as human skill can give him, (2) to an education so adapted to his handicap that he can be economically independent and have the chance for the fullest life of which he is capable, (3) to be brought up and educated by those who understand the nature of the burden he has to bear and who consider it a privilege to help him bear it, (4) to grow up in a world which does not set him apart, which looks at him not with scorn or pity or ridicule but which welcomes him exactly as it welcomes every child, which offers him identical privileges and identical responsibilities, (5) to a life on which his handicap casts no shadow, but which is filled day by day with those things which make it worth while, with comradeship, love, work, play, laughter, and tears—a life in which these things bring continually increasing growth, richness, release of energies, joy in achievement."²

²From *Report of the Committee on the Handicapped*, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

The following statements representing some of the important research projects and methods in the field of problem behavior, guidance, and mental hygiene in relation to education are presented here as a part of this special issue of THE JOURNAL dealing with guidance. In anticipation of the present number, statements of the following projects were presented in the preceding issue (January): United States Office of Education Research, Behavior Research Fund of Chicago, Projects of the New York State Education Department, Research Set-Up of the Yale Clinic of Child Development. The limitations of space have prevented the inclusion of all important projects in these two issues. Additional statements, therefore, will be included from time to time in this department

IOWA CHILD WELFARE STATION RESEARCH¹

I. Studies Completed and Published or Accepted for Publication

1. *Sex questions children ask.* By Katharine Wood Hattendorf. (Accepted for publication by *Parents' Magazine*.)
2. *A study of the questions of young children concerning sex: A phase of an experimental approach to parent education.* By Katharine Wood Hattendorf. (Accepted for publication in the *Journal of Social Psychology*.)
3. *Research in mental hygiene.* By Harold H. Anderson. *Childhood Education*, 1931, 7, 423-427.
4. *The development of mental health in a group of children.* An analysis of factors in purposeful activity. By Elizabeth Skelding Moore. *University of Iowa Studies, Studies in Child Welfare*, 1931, 4 No. 6.

II Study Completed but Unpublished

The effectiveness of a home program for mothers in sex education. By Katharine Wood Hattendorf August 1930.

¹Statement furnished through the courtesy of Dr. George D. Stottard, Director, Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, State University of Iowa, 1931

This study was undertaken to test the effectiveness of the methods, materials, and techniques of the early-sex-education program of a social-service organization when transferred to new communities.

One hundred mothers included in this study were selected by child-study leaders in two communities. These mothers were given the individual, group, and supplementary services regularly offered in the program. These services included a home interview with each mother and an introductory sex-education conference followed by monthly discussion group meetings for the interchange of experience between mothers. Home charts were furnished and mothers recorded the incidents occurring in the home with children, which were utilized in giving sex instruction. Questions and problems of mothers uncovered by the course were analyzed as were the incidents and questions of children referred by mothers.

III. Studies in Progress

1. The family study. By Kenneth V. Francis.

The study deals mainly with the attitudes of those within the family in interaction with the environment and with each other. It attempts to uncover the trends which, subtly built up in normal children, develop into divided personalities and behavior problems.

The methods of the study are sociological, psychological, and psychiatric. Twenty-seven families of the artisan class were selected from a river city of Iowa, and the fifty-five school children found in these families were interviewed. The parents were likewise interviewed, separately and for the most part in the home, by the psychiatrist. In these interviews verbatim reports were made by a stenographer. Following the interview a social worker visited the mother and obtained a social history on certain standard items. A sociological survey was made of the neighborhood and all relevant material was secured from school records. A psychological rating was obtained on all of the children.

The data secured in the investigation are now being analyzed. So far the only safe conclusion points to the extreme importance of the school system as a socializing and an educational center.

2. A study of fears in children of preschool age. By Elmer R. Hagman.

This is an investigation of the genesis of fears which aimed: (1) to enumerate and analyze the objects or situations that are feared, (2) to determine the developmental levels with respect to the number and types of fears within the group studied, and (3) to analyze the overt behavior in a fear situation. In addition an attempt was made to find the relation of fears to other factors such as: (1) mother's fears (number and kind), (2) mental and chronological development, and (3) social factors.

The information was obtained by clinical interview with the mother. These data were checked by placing the child in an approximate laboratory duplication of a feared situation and noting his behavior.

Information was obtained on seventy cases of preschool children ranging in age from approximately two years to six years; the data also included information on the earlier lives of these children.

RESEARCH AT YALE CLINIC OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Fifty-eight children were studied and interviews were held with their mothers at a "well-baby conference" organized by a visiting nurse association with a desire to determine methods of child care actually in operation, to define problems in management encountered by the mothers; and to arrive at conclusions with respect to the function fulfilled by a psychologist in such a conference.²

Conduct differences of twins are being studied under foster home conditions. Identical boy twins three years eight months old were involved in the death of an infant

²This study is being made by Dr. Ruth W. Washburn, Ph.D., Research Associate, and Dr. Marian C. Putnam of the Clinic of Child Development, Yale University.

about four months old. The social history revealed unusually unfortunate home conditions. Psychological examination prior to the accident revealed atypical personalities but slightly more pronounced in one twin than the other. A comparative study of their adjustment to foster home surroundings and to reeducation is being made.³

CLEVELAND MENTAL HYGIENE CLINIC⁴

The Cleveland Mental Hygiene Clinic at the present time is carrying on no official research projects but there are under way a number of investigations, however, in which the director is personally engaged.

I. Maternal Rejection Analysis of a group of children whose mothers did not want them during pregnancy. Selection is based on the presence of one of these two points of direct evidence:

1. Statement by mother that the pregnancy was unwelcome. (Not mere disappointment in sex.)
2. Actual attempt by mother to get rid of the child (either during pregnancy or after birth).

The analysis of case studies follows these general lines:

1. The reasons (or factors to explain) why the children were not wanted.
2. How the mothers handled these children.
3. How the children turned out in terms of their personality (behavior and attitudes).

II. Personality Test. Construction of a test which can be used both by a teacher (or other adult) to rate a child in terms of personality traits, and which can also be used by a child in rating himself. The purposes of the test will be:

1. To study and define more accurately emotional age levels.
2. To discover children needing special attention along mental-hygiene lines.

³This study is being made by Dr Helen Thompson, research associate, Clinic of Child Development, Yale University

⁴Material for the following statement has been provided through the courtesy of H. W. Newell, M.D., psychiatrist of the Mental Hygiene Clinic of the Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio

3. To assist in the more intensive study of children referred to a mental-hygiene clinic by providing suggestive leads.

III. Subject Disabilities. Collection and analysis of a series of cases where failure in specific subjects is due almost entirely to emotional factors. The bulk of these cases, so far, consists of children with specific reading disability, although there are a few examples in other subjects. Very similar to this project is a study of speech disorders. There is an excellent opportunity to gather this type of data since in addition to the regular clinic there are two reading clinics conducted in two elementary schools and a speech clinic conducted at the Western Reserve University, School of Education.

UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER RESEARCH⁵

The following research projects are being carried on in connection with the department of psychiatry in the School of Medicine of the University of Rochester. Projects 1 and 2 are under the Child Guidance Clinic staff. The Child Guidance Clinic is carried on under the auspices of a Rockefeller Foundation grant in conjunction with the local Board of Education and the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. The problems investigated are selected from the out-patient clinics of the School of Medicine and the Strong Memorial Hospital and are worked out intensively from all angles.

1. Behavior problems in preschool children.

Child Guidance Clinic

Dr. Eric Kent Clarke, director; Dr. R. C. A. Jaenike, associate director; Dr. Ruth M. Hubbard, psychologist; Dr. Daniel B. Peeler, resident in child guidance; Mrs. Christine F. Adams, chief psychiatric social worker; Mrs. Frances G. Morgan, social worker; Miss F. Alice Hutchinson, nursery school directress.

⁵This material has been furnished through the courtesy of Eric Kent Clarke, M.D., associate professor of medicine, director of the division of psychiatry of the University of Rochester School of Medicine and Dentistry, and the Strong Memorial Hospital, Rochester, New York.

2. Behavior problems in children of school age. (Psychopathic personalities.)

Child Guidance Clinic

Dr. Eric Kent Clarke, director; Dr. R. C. A. Jaenike, associate director, Dr. Ruth M. Hubbard, psychologist; Dr. Daniel B. Peeler, resident in child guidance, Mrs. Christine F. Adams, chief psychiatric social worker; Mrs. Frances G. Morgan, social worker; Miss Doris Darrow, teacher.

3. Enuresis

Child Guidance Clinic

Dr. R. C. A. Jaenike, Department of Psychiatry, Child Guidance Clinic, Department of Pediatrics.

4. Epilepsy

Dr. Daniel Peeler, Department of Child Guidance, Department of Pediatrics

5. Problems in Juvenile Delinquency

Dr. Eric Kent Clarke, Dr. Daniel Peeler, Mr. Clifford Ford, Mr. Willard Johnson. At State School of Industry, N. Y.

6. Comparable controlled observations at home and at school of behavior problems in nursery school children.

Controlled observations of children's progressive adjustment to nursery school regime.

Dr. Ruth M. Hubbard, psychologist.

CENTRAL CLINIC OF CINCINNATI

According to Dr. Emerson A. North, director and psychiatrist of the Central Clinic of the Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies of Cincinnati, Ohio, no research projects bearing on mental hygiene in relation to education are being carried on in the University of Cincinnati at the present time. It is planned, however, in the reorganization of the psychiatric department of the medical school to add a research associate with the view of doing some

rather intensive clinical research into the causative factors of failure to make proper adjustment to life situations with resultant depression and suicidal tendencies.

MENTAL-HYGIENE EXPERIMENTS IN SCHOOLS

Mental-hygiene experiments in the public schools of Evansville, Indiana, have been carried on under the direction of Dr Charles C. Wilson, director of health education assisted by two psychiatric social workers.⁴ The purpose has been to convert the school system to the education of the whole child including his emotional and social life.

During the school year 1930-1931 all 100 per cent teachers were required to make mental-hygiene case studies. During the present year the experiment is being continued with the addition of a monthly "compliment day," designed to stimulate self-confidence in the pupils.

⁴This statement has been prepared from materials provided through the courtesy of Mr. John O. Chewning, Superintendent of Schools

BOOK REVIEWS

The book-review department wishes to announce to readers of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY a change in policy effective with the present issue. Hereafter, a list of books received will be published each month. Only such books will be reviewed as, in the judgment of the reviewer, make some contribution to their fields. Reviews will be brief and expository rather than critical, giving merely the problem or scope of the book, a summary of its contents, and brief comment on outstanding contributions it contains.

BOOKS ON CHILD DEVELOPMENT

I. General

Child Psychology, by MARGARET CURTI. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1930, 527 pages.

The best general survey of the field of child development yet published. Considerably influenced by the behavioristic and *Gestalt* points of view. Excellent chapters on the origins and growth of meanings. Good introductory text on college level.

The Child From Five to Ten, by EVELYN AND MIRIAM KENWRICK. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1930, 299 pages.

An inventory of the potentialities and interests of early childhood. The specialization of interests: music, mathematics, language, reading and writing, nature. Physical and social development. Some types of children: clever, backward, nervous, sociable, unsociable.

Child Adjustment, by ANNIE INSKEEP. New York: D Appleton and Company, 1930, 427 pages.

"How the child's body, mind, and emotions differ from an adult's, how they develop into the adult stage, and how they should be cared for during school years." Suggestions for guiding the growth and development of the child in light of individual needs. Good introduction to mental hygiene, particularly from the educational point of view.

A Primer for Mothers, by WILHELM STEKEL. New York: The Macaulay Company, 1931, x+390 pages.

A general, but comprehensive and stimulating discussion of the problems of childhood by a distinguished psychoanalyst. Written as a series of letters from a physician to a mother. Much common sense.

II. The Preschool Child

The Psychology of the Infant, by SIEGFRIED BERNFELD. New York: Brentano's, 1929, 309 pages.

A Freudian interpretation of the period from birth to weaning drawn against an instinctual background, and emphasizing the trauma and frustration incident upon such developmental experiences as birth, weaning, dentition, and the first adjustments of the ego to the outer world.

The Management of Young Children, by WILLIAM E. BLATZ AND HELEN BOTT. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1930, 354 pages.

The problems incident to the socialization of the young child. Authority, discipline, freedom, the nature of control, the physical environment, the social environment, types of motivation. Excellent discussion of early habit formation and habit problems. Good text for parent-education groups.

The First Year of Life, by CHARLOTTE BUHLER. New York: The John Day Company, 1930, 281 pages.

An account of the observations on the early behavior, physical and social, of children made at the *Kinderubernahmsstelle der Gemeinde Wien*. The first significant behavior inventory of the first year of life. The Bühler tests for the first year, with instructions for scoring. Suggestive statement of the research procedures adapted to the observation of infant behavior.

The Young Child and His Parents, by JOSEPHINE FOSTER AND JOHN ANDERSON. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930, 247 pages.

One hundred brief case histories describing behavior shown by children between the ages of two and six. The environmental situation of the child is described, together with conduct problems developing in the home before school age. A first basis for comparing the behavior of "normal" and "problem" children. Intended as a source book in parent education.

The Language Development of the Preschool Child, by DOROTHEA MCCARTHY. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930, 174 pages.

The relationship of various language processes to age, sex, social-economic status, intelligence, position in the family, number of playmates, and other factors based upon observation of a group of one hundred and forty children between the ages of eighteen and fifty-four months and representative of the general population. An admirable contribution to the field of study opened up by Piaget.

Growth and Development of the Young Child, by WINIFRED RAND, MARY SWEENEY, AND E. LEE VINCENT. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1931, 394 pages.

Philosophy of family life; family and home as background for child growth, heredity and development; prenatal care and preparation of the family for the new child; growth during infancy; transition from infancy to early childhood; growth during early childhood. An especially significant contribution to the literature of physical growth, also good material on social growth. Excellent chapter on the family.

The First Two Years, by MARY SHIRLEY. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1931, 227 pages.

A study of the locomotor development of twenty-five babies and its relationship to anatomical and physical development, individual differences, etc. Interesting theoretical implications for genetic and educational psychology. Admirable piece of scientific observation and much suggestive material on method for others interested in this field.

III. Adolescence

New Girls for Old, by PHYLLIS BLANCHARD AND CARLYN MANASSES. New York: The Macaulay Company, 1930, 281 pages.

Case studies, letters written from newspaper advice columns, questionnaire replies, and other data picturing the attitudes of the modern girl towards society, her problems in adjusting to it, and her attempts to solve these problems. An illuminating and understanding picture of contemporary later adolescence

The Psychology of Adolescence, by FOWLER BROOKS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929, 652 pages.

A comprehensive survey of the literature on adolescence, supplemented by original material, and interpreted from a fresh point of view emphasizing the personality development and mental hygiene of

the adolescent. An excellent textbook on the college level. One of the Riverside textbooks in education.

Love in the Machine Age, by FLOYD DELL. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1930, 428 pages.

A sympathetic and keen interpretation of the problems of the younger generation by a distinguished novelist and student of human nature. A particularly good picture of the conflict between the expanding ego of the adolescent and the mores of our patriarchal society, with the twists of personality that result therefrom.

Principles of Adolescent Education, by RALPH OWEN. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1929, 427 pages.

A discussion of adolescent education in terms of the nature of education, the pupil, the curriculum, and the teacher. Easily the best college-level textbook in the field.

Adolescence, by FRANKWOOD WILLIAMS. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, reprinted in 1930, 279 pages.

A series of related essays on the problems of adolescence by the former medical director of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. An interpretation of adolescence in terms of the struggle for independence and the necessity of becoming adult.

BEHAVIOR DISORDERS OF CHILDREN

The Healthy-Minded Child, edited by NELSON CRAWFORD AND KARL MENNINGER. New York: Coward-McCann, 1930, 198 pages.

A collection of essays by a well-known group of educators and psychiatrists on the mental hygiene of childhood. The contributors are Karl Menninger, George Pratt, Lillian Gilbreth, Herman Adler, Bertrand Russell, Josephine Jackson, Lawson Lowrey, Nelson Crawford, Ernest and Gladys Groves, and William Menninger.

Concerning Our Girls and What They Tell Us, by EUGENIE LEONARD. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930, 192 pages.

The analysis of replies to a questionnaire on one hundred life situations submitted to 450 girls in an attempt to throw light upon the mother-daughter relationship during adolescence, with a discussion of forty selected cases from among those who replied. Interesting reading in conjunction with Dr. Blanchard's book mentioned above.

The Terror Dream, by GEORGE GREEN. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1929, 126 pages.

A discussion of the terror dream—its interpretation and symptomatic meaning—and of its underlying emotional mechanisms. Valuable to clinicians.

Institute for Child Guidance Studies, edited by LAWSON LOWREY. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1931, 290 pages.

A collection of papers contributed by members of the Institute staff to other periodicals or presented before professional associations and reprinted in this volume. The papers relate to the medical, psychological, and social-work aspects of child guidance.

The Natural History of a Delinquent Career, by CLIFFORD SHAW. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1931, 280 pages.

The analysis of the life story of a delinquent in the effort to show the typical stages in the development of the antisocial attitude and behavior that characterize the juvenile delinquent. A notable contribution to the case-study approach to the problem. One of the Behavior Research Fund Monographs. Discussion of the case by Dr. Ernest Burgess, director of the Fund.

Social Factors in Juvenile Delinquency (Report on the Causes of Crime, Volume II, of the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement), by CLIFFORD SHAW AND HENRY MCKAY. Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1931, 401 pages.

A study of social factors in delinquency—delinquent behavior in relation to the social situation, juvenile delinquency and community backgrounds, the companionship factor in delinquency, family situations and juvenile delinquency, the development of delinquent careers. The most notable contribution of sociology to the study of delinquency and one of the outstanding works in the entire literature on criminology.

HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Social Control of the Feeble-minded, by STANLEY DAVIES. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company 1930, 389 pages.

The nature of mental defect, its possible extent in the United States, the problems to which it gives rise, and the measures whereby it can

be brought under control—in the interests of society at large and of mental defectives themselves. Comprehensive and sound. Excellent college text and reference work.

The Problem of Stuttering, by JOHN FLETCHER. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1928, 362 pages.

An attempt to explain the apparent failure of present methods of dealing with stuttering and to outline a new and psychologically more sound method of approaching the treatment of stutterers. Based on research in several university laboratories, clinics, and hospitals. Important contribution to the field. One of the Longmans' Psychology Series.

The Social Adjustment of the Feeble-minded, by HELEN WALKER AND MARY SCHAUFFLER. Cleveland: Western Reserve University, 1930, 220 pages.

A study of the community adjustments made by 898 feeble-minded individuals, and of the implications of these adjustments for the reconstruction of community programs for dealing with the feeble-minded. A first, and admirable study of the rôle of the feeble-minded in community life.

Psychology of Exceptional Children, by NORMA V. SCHEIDEMANN. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931, 520 pages.

The nature and origin of trait differences with a discussion of the causes, psychology, and educational implications of the major types of deviation met in the school—speech disorders, left-handedness, subnormality, giftedness, neurotic traits, delinquency, deafness, blindness, etc. The best textbook in the field. One of the Riverside textbooks in education.

Speech Pathology, by LEE TRAVIS. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1931, 331 pages.

A comprehensive work on the speech mechanism and its disorders—neuromuscular basis of speech, classification of speech disorders, general causes of speech disorders, general examination methods, disorders of rhythm in verbal expression, disorders of articulation and phonation, disorders of symbolic formulation and expression. A neurological approach. Much clinical material. An outstanding work in the field.

The Dependent Child, by HENRY THURSTON. New York: Columbia University Press, 1930, 337 pages.

The history of the social treatment of the dependent child with a critical discussion and evaluation of present practices, a scholarly treat-

ment by a practical social worker of a pressing contemporary problem in child welfare. One of the new series of New York School of Social Work publications.

Civilization and the Cripple, by FREDERICK WATSON.
London: John Bale, Sons and Danielsson, Ltd., 1930,
120 pages.

A discussion of past and future problems growing out of disablement in domestic life and industry, with principles underlying a constructive program for social orthopedics, by the editor of *The Cripple*.

The World of the Blind, by PIERRE VILLEY, translated by
ALYS HALLARD. New York: The Macmillan Com-
pany, 1930, 403 pages.

A psychological interpretation of the mental processes and subjective world of the blind, and the blind in relationship to society. The author, blind from early childhood, received an award from the French Academy of Moral Science for this work. Dr. Pierre Janet considers the treatment of the "space" concepts of the blind a particularly significant contribution to the psychology of blindness.

BOOKS RECEIVED

A Thousand Marriages, by Dickinson and Beam. Baltimore: Wil-
liams and Wilkins Company.

Administration of Pupil Personnel, by Heck. Boston: Ginn and Com-
pany.

Behavior Disorders Following Encephalitis, by Bond and Appel. New
York: Commonwealth Fund.

Bibliography of Social Surveys, by Eaton and Harrison. New York:
Russell Sage Foundation.

Care of the Infant and Child, by Litchfield and Dembo. Brooklyn:
Ellday Book Sales Company.

Character Building Through Recreation, by Heaton. Chicago: The
University of Chicago Press.

Child Health and the Community, by Dinwiddie. New York: The
Commonwealth Fund.

Children Who Run on All Fours, by Hrdlicka. New York: McGraw-
Hill Book Company, Inc.

Contemporary Schools of Psychology, by Woodworth. New York:
Ronald Press Company.

Contribution of Sociology to Social Work, by Maciver. New York:
Columbia University Press.

Courses and Careers, by Gallagher. New York: Harper and Brothers.

Craving for Superiority, by Dodge and Kahn. New Haven: Yale
University Press.

Creative Home, by Deering. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.

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- Crime and Criminal Law in the United States*, by Best. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Criminology*, by Haynes. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Critical Study of Homogeneous Grouping*, by Kelher. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching*, by Brueckner and Melby. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Dissatisfied Worker*, by Fisher and Hanna. New York. The Macmillan Company.
- Doctor Explains*, by Major. New York: Alfred A Knopf.
- Education in Modern Times*, by Meyer. New York. Ronald Press Company.
- Educational Psychology*, by Trow. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Enriching the Curriculum for Gifted Children*, by Osborn and Rohan. New York. The Macmillan Company.
- Extra Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*, by Fretwell. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Home and the Child*. Committee on the Family and Parent Education, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York. The Century Company.
- How Normal Children Grow*, by Anderson and Goodenough. New York: The Parents' Magazine.
- How We Become Moral*, by Weber. Boston: Richard G Badger.
- Human Heredity*, by Baur, Fischer, and Lenz. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- I Find My Vocation*, by Kitson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Interpretation of Development and Heredity*, by Russell. New York Oxford University Press.
- Interviews, Interviewers and Interviewing in Social Case Work*. New York: Family Welfare Association of America.
- Introductory Study of the Family*, by Schmiedeler. New York: The Century Company.
- Meaning of Psychoanalysis*, by Peck. New York: Alfred A. Knopf
- Measurement of Attitude*, by Thurstone and Chave. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Measurement of Intelligence in Young Children by an Object-Fitting Test*, by Atkins. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Measurement of Interests*, by Fryer. New York: Henry Holt and Company
- Mental Hygiene*, by Groves and Blanchard. New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Morbid Personality*, by Lorand. New York: Alfred A Knopf.
- One-Hundred-One Ways for Women to make Money*, by Leigh. New York: Simon and Schuster.

- Pediatric Education*. Washington: White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.
- Physical Basis of Personality*, by Stockard. New York: W. W. Norton and Company
- Physique and Intellect*, by Patterson. New York: The Century Company.
- Principles and Practices in Health Education*. New York: Child Health Association.,
- Principles of Guidance*, by Jones. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Psychology of Elementary School Subjects*, by Garrison and Garrison. New York: Johnson Publishing Company.
- Psychology of Men of Genius*, by Kretschmer. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company
- Psychopathic Personalities*, by Kahn. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Readings on the Family*, by Schmiedeler. New York: The Century Company.
- Remaking of Marriage*, by Bjerre. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- School and Mental Health*, by Bassett. New York: The Commonwealth Fund.
- School Nursing*, by Chayer. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons
- Science of Living*, by Adler. New York: Greenberg Publisher, Inc.
- Scientific Basis of Social Work*, by Karpf. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Sex in Marriage*, by Groves and Hoagland. New York: The Macaulay Company
- Social Determinants in Juvenile Delinquency*, by Sullenger. Omaha: Douglas Printing Company.
- Social Worker in Child Care and Protection*, by Williamson. New York: Harper and Brothers.
- Story of Infancy*, by Kugelmass. New York: The Century Company
- Study of Homogeneous Grouping*, by Burr. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Teacher in the New School*, by Porter. Yonkers: World Book Company.
- Teacher's Relationships*, by Davis. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Teaching the Bright Pupil*, by Adams and Brown. New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Tests and Measurements for Teachers*, by Tiegs. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Wawokiye Camp*, by Newstetter. Cleveland: School of Applied and Social Sciences, Western Reserve University.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The National Society of College Teachers of Education holds its annual meeting in Washington, February 22 and 23, 1932 in conjunction with the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. The general topic of this meeting is the improvement of college and university instruction. Besides the general sessions the organization has adopted a plan of sectional meetings. These round-table groups are: section 1, history and philosophy of education; section 2, educational sociology, section 3, school administration; and section 4, elementary education. The officers of this organization are Lester B. Rogers, School of Education, University of Southern California, president; and S. A. Courtis, School of Education, University of Michigan, secretary treasurer.

The program of the section on educational sociology of the National Society of College Teachers of Education is as follows

Tuesday, February 23, 1932

9.15 a. m.

Chairman, Benjamin F. Stalcup, New York University

1. The Status and Scope of Educational Sociology in Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools and Colleges, and University Departments of Education

Gray Truitt, Adelphi College.

2. The Subject Matter of the Basic Course in Educational Sociology
Wray H. Congdon, University of Michigan and
Charles L. Anspach, Michigan State Normal College.

3. Discussion led by Jordan R. Cavan, Rockford College,

Luncheon

12.15—1.45

Part I.

Speaker, Dr. Edward C. Brooke, Superintendent of Schools,
Philadelphia

Topic, Training the Superintendent

Part II. Section on Educational Sociology, Room 145. This program follows the luncheon session

1. Education for the Control of Narcotics

E. George Payne, New York University (10 min.)

2. Discussion led by Julian L. Archer, State Teachers College,
Macomb, Illinois

Mr. Edward Corsi Honored by President Hoover

President Hoover has recently appointed Mr. Corsi, formerly of the Italian department in the School of Education, New York University, Commissioner of Immigration. Mr. Corsi was graduated with distinction from the law school at Fordham, but he never took the trouble to be admitted to the bar. When asked why, he answered, "Today,

lawyers conceive law not as a dignified profession but a commercialized learned profession. A business and not a pleasant one. So I've been in social work and newspaper work ever since." As the head of Harlem Settlement House, he has had to hold the balance between twenty-seven nationalities and keep his eyes open to any possible discrimination or prejudice. This experience he believes will aid him at Ellis Island. His journalistic work was done for the *New York World* which sent him to Europe for a year, also for the *Outlook* and other magazines. He writes principally on political and sociological subjects. Although he is in the best sense serious he is not devoid of humor. It seems that he and President Hoover have known each other several years. The President has for a long time been familiar with conditions in New York and is thoroughly acquainted with Mr. Corsi's qualifications.

His chief aim is to "humanize" Ellis Island. He expects to add such warmth to the organization that the newcomers will feel and know that they are welcome to their adopted future home. He proposes to drill each clerk and attendant on the island to act as a member of a hospitality committee. He intends to have active and educative indoor and outdoor recreation and class instruction for the newcomers.

His chief objects, however, are immediately to start educating the future American in American ideals and customs and to supervise and control the stream of human material that flows into the United States from abroad so as to protect the American working men against unfair and undue competition.

Qualifications of One-Room School Teachers

How much training have the teachers of the 153,000 one-room rural schools of the United States? This is a question answered by a recent summary of the Federal Office of Education.

"If all the teachers of one-teacher schools stood side by side, their ranks would extend in an unbroken line 87 1 miles. Assuming this army of teachers were arranged in such a way that the one having received the least amount of training stood at one end and the one having received the largest amount of training at the other, a person reviewing this company would find it necessary to walk a distance of 8½ miles before coming to a teacher with a training equivalent to 2 years of high school."

"One would have to walk half the entire distance before approaching a teacher with training equal to high-school graduation, and would have to continue his walk for a total distance of 67 6 miles before reaching the first teacher with the equivalent of 2 years of normal-school education. The jaunt would be continued to within 13 miles of the end of the line before one who had the equivalent of a college education would be reached."

What of the composite teacher of this group?

"Since men teachers are a great scarcity in one-teacher schools the typical teacher is a woman about 27 years old. She would have a total education of four years and one month above the grade school, her teaching experience would total 2 years and 6 months; she would receive an annual salary of \$847.00; she would have under her care a total of 22 farm children, and she would be employed in her school for a total of 152 days a year."

Although one-teacher schools are being abandoned at the rate of 4,200 per year in favor of consolidated schools, one-teacher schools still open their doors to more farm children than any other type of school.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. William J. Ellis received his A.B., A.M., and LL.D. degrees from Hobart College and a Ph.D. from Rutgers University. He is a member of the Board of Directors, American Prison Association, Board of Trustees, American Legion Convalescent Home, Phi Beta Kappa; and president of the American Association of Public Welfare Officials. He is the author of numerous articles and reports on crime particularly dealing with delinquents and feeble-minded. Since 1926 he has been commissioner of department institutions and agencies, Trenton, New Jersey.

Miss Mildred L. Fisher received her A.B. and A.M. degrees from New York University. Her professional experience has been gathered at the Maplewood Junior High School in successive capacities as teacher, class guide, and assistant principal. For the past five years she has had a part in the building up of the South Orange-Maplewood school system guidance organization.

Dr. Bruce B. Robinson received his A.B. degree from Baker University, his A.M. from Clark University, and his M.D. in 1919 from Harvard Medical School. Since 1926 he has been director of the Department of Child Guidance, Newark Public Schools. Dr. Robinson was lecturer on mental hygiene at New York University Medical School during 1928, 1929, and 1930; lecturer in department of educational sociology of New York University since 1929, lecturer on mental hygiene at Newark Institute and Columbia University, and consultant in psychiatry at Newark Normal School since 1930.

Mr. Julius Yourman is completing the requirements for his Ph.D. degree at New York University School of Education. He is a graduate of the Jamaica Training School for Teachers and received his Sc.B. and A.M. degrees at New York University. He has taught for six years in the elementary and junior high schools of New York City and recently was assigned as teacher of guidance. During summer sessions, Mr. Yourman has served as instructor in psychology and educational measurements in the State Normal School at Fredonia, New York. He is a lecturer on child-adjustment problems and active as chairman of the Committee on Mental Hygiene of the Queensborough Teachers Association.

Dr. Harvey W. Zorbaugh is associate professor of education, director of the Clinic for the Social Adjustment of the Gifted, and director of the curriculum on educational guidance at the School of Education of New York University. He is a fellow of the American Orthopsychiatry Association, associate editor of the *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, member of the Committee on the Physically and Mentally Handicapped Child of the White House Conference, and representative of the American Sociological Society on the National Council for Social Studies. He is a clinical sociologist interested in the sociological approach to the study of individual behavior.

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EDITORIAL

Professor Albert B. Meredith, head of the department of school administration and supervision of the School of Education, New York University, and educational adviser of the regents program for public higher education in New Jersey, has submitted a report which, if carried out, will be far-reaching in the reorganization of higher education in that State. The numerous features of this revolutionary program cannot be presented in this editorial and therefore we can neither do justice to the program nor indicate its vital significance.

The general policy is expressed in the following statement:

In addition to providing new agencies throughout the State, wherever there is a demonstrated need, the Regents propose a plan to unify existing public and private institutions under proper conditions of State control into one inclusive university organization. The Regents do not seek to establish a comprehensive State university on a single campus or to act solely as a disbursing agency for the State in making grants to such institutions as it may utilize for public higher education. The educational situation in the State is too critical and too important for anything more than a broad and inclusive proposal. Furthermore, it is confidently believed that the State is prepared to seriously consider a long-term program, particularly as it does not involve an immediate or large expenditure of public funds.

The proposed first stage in the development of the plan is summarized by Professor Meredith as follows:

The incorporation by the legislature of "The University of New Jersey" with a board of trustees or regents of from seven to nine members appointed for terms of at least as many years, respectively, to whom should be given broad powers. The following will be typical of the authority to be granted.

1. To define the conditions under which educational units become component parts of the university. Some of these units may be public units and others privately chartered.
2. To exercise general supervision and direction over the administration of such institutions of higher education as shall become component parts of the university. Some of those institutions may already exist and others will be organized as both need and opportunity arise.
3. To administer the internal affairs of the University of New Jersey and also those of such institutions and activities in the field of higher education which exist as public units of the university or that may hereafter be created or so designated by authority of law.
4. To provide for the purchase by annual contract with the trustees of any institution of higher education within the State, except such State institution as shall be a component part of the University of New Jersey or an institution in which a religious doctrine or tenet may be taught, such higher educational services as the regents may desire, or to sell to said trustees such services of public higher education as such a body may desire.
5. To act jointly, with the board of trustees of any privately incorporated higher educational institution, not a component part of the University of New Jersey, in the general conduct of any or all the work in such administrative units as are not under the legal control of the trustees of such higher educational institutions; in the granting of degrees; and in the issuance of diplomas or of certificates of work accomplished.
6. To determine what educational corporations shall be licensed to grant degrees and diplomas
7. To administer any trust funds that may be deposited with the regents of the university, the incomes of which are either to be allotted to specified units or which may be available for the benefit of the university as a whole.

So far as the writer knows this is the first serious attempt to organize a State program of higher education designed in every respect to meet the needs of the State and to prevent the ordinary overlapping of functions. We shall watch this development with keenest interest.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND SAFETY WORK

EARL E. MUNTZ

The achievements of modern industry are unfortunately marred by a startling casualty list. One of the immediate effects of the industrial revolution with its mechanization of industry was a tremendous increase in the number of health and accident hazards faced by the worker, and the subsequent evolution of industry has facilitated a cumulative increase in such hazards. Today it may truthfully be said that there is scarcely a trade which does not present its perils, and since industry is so largely city centered the problem of industrial health is a matter of prime importance to the student of urban problems. Statistics regarding both industrial accidents and occupational diseases are difficult to collect owing to the absence of nation-wide compulsory reports. It is, however, estimated that industrial fatalities range well above 20,000 annually and nonfatal accidents total at least 2,500,000 per year.¹ Other estimates place the number of fatalities as high as 35,000 and the number of nonfatal accidents above 3,500,000.²

In the pursuit of a livelihood wage earners are subjected to varying risks and hazards, some of which are peculiar to their own occupation, while others arise as a result of their own or others' carelessness. The fact that the startling total of persons incapacitated by industry is in large part needless has been emphasized over and over again. It would be futile to attempt to enumerate all the causes of industrial accidents, but a few of

¹The National Safety Council estimated 18,858 fatal industrial accidents for the year 1928, 20,000 in 1929, and 19,000 for 1930. Nonfatal lost-time injuries for 1930 are estimated at 2,500,000. Accident Facts, 1931. The National Safety Council, p. 51. Edison L. Bowers, in his recent volume, *Is It Safe to Work? A Study of Industrial Accidents* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1930), p. 4, places the annual total of fatal industrial accidents from 16,000 to 20,000, nonfatal accidents in excess of 2,500,000, and estimates an annual wage loss of one billion dollars.

²American Labor Year Book (New York: Rand Book Store, 1929), p. 85.

the more important causative factors might be cited, such as inadequate lighting, excessive heat, fatigue, gases and fumes, unguarded or defective machinery, special transportation hazards, and air pressure in excavating for great buildings and tunnels. Electrical accidents, burns, and falls also account for many industrial accidents. Some idea of the accident frequency and severity rate in various industries can be obtained from the accompanying chart derived from data compiled by the National Safety Council.⁸

ACCIDENT RATES BY INDUSTRIES, 1929-1930
(As reported to the National Safety Council by member establishments)

Industry	Frequency per 1,000,000 man hours worked		Severity days lost per 1,000 man hours worked	
	1929	1930	1929	1930
Automobile	22 17	12 83	97	1 04
Ceramic.	28 93	25 85	1 07	1 59
Construction	50 41	51 57	4 62	5 49
Chemical	17 50	15 50	1 72	1 94
Electric railways.	29 75	22 49	1 93	1 96
Food	21 07	17 72	1 50	1 48
Foundry.	30 30	32 11	1 73	2 23
Glass products	17 70	14 54	80	77
Laundry	12 78	8 96	1 53	69
Machinery	18 91	14 11	1 11	1 02
Metal forming	29 71	17 59	1 67	1 26
Mining	74 43	49 34	0 99	8 94
Nonferrous milling and smelting	23 16	17 14	2 71	2 03
Paper and pulp.	28 43	23 65	1 77	1 89
Meat packing	55 94	34 38	1 47	1 99
Petroleum.	26 78	18 05	2 49	2 37
Printing and publishing	12 23	9 67	67	29
Public utilities	22 58	18 76	3 13	2 95
Quarry	26 71	23 46	6 11	3 30
Railway car and equipment.	21 88	20 23	2 20	2 43
Refrigeration.	43 35	35 17	3 04	2 28
Steel	18 13	11 99	2 75	2 47
Tanning and leather.	31 35	16 49	1 60	1 16
Textile	11 82	9 23	58	68

The striking decline of both frequency and severity rates in 1930 from the 1929 levels may be attributed to two factors. First, the improvement reflects in no small degree the increasing effectiveness of safety campaigns and safety work in industry. Secondly, 1929 was a prosperous year with a correspondingly high rate of employment. Not only do we find employed the most efficient workers, both skilled and unskilled, who by reason of their very efficiency and presumably greater intelligence might be expected to show a relatively low accident rate, but also the inefficient among whom a much higher accident rate might be anticipated. On the other hand, 1930 was a depression year

⁸Accident Facts, 1930, p. 56. *Ibid*, 1931, p. 52

during which only the best and the most efficient employees could profitably be retained; the others were discharged or laid off thus eliminating from industry, for the time being, a group in which industrial casualties are prone to be high. Moreover, industry in 1929 was keyed up to a high pitch which generally results in a greater accident rate, while the depression in 1930 brought about a great slowing down of activities.

OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

An occupational disease may be defined as one attendant on, and peculiar to, a specific occupation or industry and for which the process is wholly or principally responsible.⁴ There are, however, many common diseases which are contracted primarily as a result of conditions of labor or are aggravated by such conditions, and, although these are not ordinarily classified as occupational diseases, they may be included in a broader definition of the term. In this category then one might include tuberculosis, rheumatism, and other afflictions of ordinary origin. Some occupational diseases are relatively easy to discern, as in the case of anthrax or other bacterial diseases; but it is much more difficult to discover the existence of diseases caused by the use of certain chemical substances for the only symptoms appearing at first may be headache, constipation, or some minor ailments which are treated by the average physician *without thought or knowledge as to the true cause*. It is often true that only after a long period of abnormal biochemical and physiological disturbances in the body does the true nature of the disease manifest itself. Such a situation was presented a few years ago with reference to young women employed in painting luminous watch dials who contracted radium poisoning. It was not until considerable time, ranging from two to four years, had elapsed that the results of the poisoning were apparent but a great many of the victims had already succumbed to the

⁴J. D. Hackett, *Health Maintenance in Industry* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1925), p. 150

poison. Moreover, different individuals show varying degrees of resistance to disease. Occupational diseases may result from the physical condition of the worker, harmful environmental conditions where the worker is employed, or from the materials used in the various processes of his work. The damage caused by the materials may be in the nature of poisoning from metals, acids, fumes or gases, irritation or destruction of the tissues by certain salts, or the grit and dust of certain rocks. Of the materials the greatest attention has been given to the reaction of poisonous metals and irritating gases and fumes.

The special disease hazards of occupations have been classified by Dr. E. R. Hayhurst in the following grouping.⁵

1. Metals
 - a) filings, dust and fumes of metals or their salts
 - b) poisonous metals—arsenic, antimony, brass, lead
2. Dusts
 - a) insoluble inorganic dusts—flint, silica, sand, cement, marble, lime
 - b) soluble, inorganic dusts—soluble metallic salts and compounds
 - c) organic dusts—fur, skin, hides, flour, tobacco, jute
3. Gases, vapors, fumes
 - a) illuminating gas, carbonic acid gas
 - b) mineral acids
 - c) tar, creosote
 - d) nitro and amido compounds

To this list of occupational disease hazards may be added those involving friction and nervous tension, diseases following injuries, fatigue diseases, temperature disabilities, excessive noise or light, and atmospheric pressure. There are also many diseases which are at least partly occupational and may affect the respiratory, circulatory, and alimentary systems, and the skin, nerves and muscles, bones, and nutrition.⁶

⁵Emery R. Hayhurst, "The Significance of Occupational Diseases," *Monthly Bulletin*, Ohio State Board of Health, June 1913. Quoted in Hackett, *op cit*, pp. 152-153.

⁶Emery R. Hayhurst, "Occupational Diseases," *National Safety News* (Chicago National Safety Council, 1929), p. 44. For a complete account of industrial diseases, see George M. Kober and Emery R. Hayhurst, *Industrial Health* (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son and Company, 1924), lxxii+1184 pages. Sir Thomas Oliver, *Diseases of Occupation* (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1926), third revised edition, 495 pages.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

1. *Factory acts.* The undermining of health and the appalling toll of human life as a result of adverse conditions of labor were consistently directed to public attention in England during the early part of the nineteenth century. This agitation at first centered around the sorry plight of children employed in the great textile factories and culminated in the early factory acts designed for their protection. But when it was once admitted that legislation was necessary to safeguard the working conditions for children it was impossible to stop with this age group and, commencing about 1844, there subsequently appeared a voluminous mass of factory legislation regulating the physical and environmental conditions of labor, first of women and later of men.

Massachusetts was the first American State to pass legislation looking towards accident prevention when in 1852 a bill regarding the safety of steam machines was enacted and in 1870 the supervision of steam boilers was required. In 1877 inspectors were granted the right of entry into factories and certain regulations such as requiring the removal of dust were put into effect. The pioneer work of Massachusetts was of inestimable value in setting an example which other industrial States were not slow in accepting. Thus factory inspection was provided for in New Jersey and Wisconsin in 1884. Other early enactments of this nature followed in Ohio in 1884, New York in 1886, Connecticut, Minnesota, and Maine in 1887, Pennsylvania in 1889, and Missouri and Tennessee in 1891. Now all States have some form of legislation for the protection of children in industrial pursuits, almost all provide some protection for women, and the foremost industrial States have elaborate factory acts applying to the environmental conditions of labor for all workers.

Leaving aside such protective legislation as the limitation of hours, minimum wages, etc., which indirectly influ-

ence industrial accidents and occupational diseases by reducing the element of fatigue and attempting to assure a living wage, the more comprehensive factory acts of leading industrial States embrace the following provisions:

a) A general statement as to the condition of employment to be provided for by employers in workshop or factory. Thus the employer is required to furnish and use such safety devices and safeguards, adopt such methods and processes and prescribe such hours of labor as will be reasonably adequate to render the employments and place of employment safe, and must take every precaution reasonably necessary to protect the life, health, safety, and welfare of his employees.

b) Enumeration of the trades and industries covered.

c) Detailed provisions as to sanitation, lighting, ventilation, and fire protection of the working place.

d) General provisions regarding the safeguarding of machinery and equipment by the use of guard rails, fencing, exhaust fans, masks for employees, etc.

e) Special regulations for trades or manufacturing processes regarded as particularly hazardous. In this category fall those occupations in which the employee handles or uses lead and other poisons, where grinding processes are involved, and where the handling of hides and skins may cause anthrax.

f) Requirements designed for the preservation of the morals and general welfare of employees. Thus the law may require proper and adequate toilet facilities for the two sexes, washrooms, lunchrooms apart from the workrooms, restrooms for women, and first-aid requisites.

g) Prohibition of the employment of certain classes in dangerous occupations. Women and children are ordinarily excluded from such work, and the law may require periodic physical examination of all workers, as in the lead industries of Ohio, to exclude those who are unfit or show signs of contracting an occupational disease.

h) Prohibition on the maintenance of sweatshops. Any dwelling or part of a building connected with a tenement or dwelling is regarded as a sweatshop when used for the process of manufacturing wearing apparel, tobacco goods, or other products by persons other than the immediate members of the family living therein.

i) Duties of the industrial commission or other body charged with the administration of the factory acts. The functions of such agencies consist of the supervision and inspection of workshops and factories, the issuing of orders relating to safety and health, and the enforcement of all laws and orders relating thereto. Occasionally a special division of the industrial commission is created to conduct research studies and

investigations on the causes and prevention of industrial accidents and occupational diseases.

j) A schedule of penalties for violation of the factory acts.

2. *Workmen's compensation.* The workmen's compensation laws, although not factory acts in the sense of the above legislation, have had a decided influence in the reduction of industrial accidents and industrial diseases. These laws have come about as a result of the growing conviction that industries which are responsible for the loss of earning power of workers employed therein should bear the cost of such disasters. Under the old common law the injured employee invariably bore the brunt of the economic loss involved and in many cases the community had to assume the burden for the support of the workman, disabled more or less permanently, and for his family. The employer was not responsible to an employee for injuries sustained while at work unless negligence on the part of the employer was shown, and even then he could legally escape responsibility if proof was adduced to show that there was contributory negligence on the part of the employee or one of his fellow servants, or that the worker, upon accepting employment, assumed the risks which were presumed to be characteristic of the occupation.

Compensation laws are to be found in almost every State in the union.⁷ In general they provide for definite payments to injured workmen at the expense of the employer, and are made practically regardless of negligence. Accidents are looked upon as trade risks against which the workman should be adequately protected. His protection is secured by compelling the employer to insure through a State fund, a stock, or a mutual insurance company, in some jurisdictions the employer may maintain his own insurance fund subject to the approval of the State administrative body or give bond that he will duly pay such compensation as lawfully may be required of him. A schedule of payments is provided for various types of accidents, and in the case

⁷There remain but four States without workmen's compensation laws. These are South Carolina, Arkansas, Florida, and Mississippi, all southern States and essentially agricultural in nature.

of a permanently incapacitating injury monthly payments are usually granted for a number of years, and in a few States for the life of the injured or crippled worker. There is a growing tendency to award compensation to victims of occupational diseases, these being treated in the same manner as industrial accidents. Since the premiums which the employer must pay are largely conditioned by the frequency of accidents among his employees, there is a constant incentive before the employer to adopt such safety measures as will reduce his cost. His financial liability for accidents has made him an active agent in enforcing safe conditions in industry. Past experience has adequately demonstrated the fact that legal pressure is needed before the majority of employers interest themselves in the prevention of accidents and occupational diseases. Unfortunately, many small concerns refuse to admit that they have an accident problem and have refrained from engaging in voluntary safety work because the net cost of accidents is regarded as less expensive than an effective safety program. The expense account of injuries is relatively small to the corporation, however great it may prove to the unfortunate worker and to society, because under the compensation laws injury benefits are invariably far below the true economic value of the employee. Moreover, the firm with the high injury rate fares little worse than its competitors with smaller casualty lists. Under these circumstances it would seem as though a more adequate compensation to the worker, thereby increasing the employer's accident liability, together with a just system of merit rating having the effect of reducing the employer's premium for effective safety work, would serve as the greatest stimulus towards accident prevention.⁸

3. *Industrial-health service.* In addition to the legal requirements for the safety and protection of their workmen large industrial establishments are now beginning to see the advantages of industrial-health service both from

⁸Bowers, *op. cit.*, pp. 164-172

an economic and a social standpoint. Thus it is not uncommon to find company programs for the physical welfare of their employees carried out through various services such as health or medical, sanitation, safety engineering, and visiting-nurse service. Other related services frequently found include housing, recreation, lunches, etc., all of which have a direct bearing upon the health of the worker.

The health service of the modern progressive industrial establishment provides for the physical examination of all accepted applicants for work, and the reexamination of all those transferred from one department to another to determine their physical fitness for the new task. Workers who have some physical defect or who are engaged in such work as presents a special health hazard are periodically examined, and may be referred to the company dispensary for medical attention if necessary. Most establishments of any size maintain a dispensary or first-aid room. Here industrial accidents and cases of illness occurring among the employees are given immediate treatment and care. Every employee suffering an accident however slight or becoming ill while at work is ordinarily required to report at the dispensary for treatment. In a few instances a large corporation may even maintain a hospital for its employees and their families. The Southern Pacific Railroad has provided hospital service for its employees since 1867. For this service each employee contributes \$1.00 per month hospital dues, the company making up the balance.⁹ Medical or surgical attention for employees injured while at work is ordinarily provided for at the expense of the employer, even though it may be of long duration, through the operation of workmen's compensation acts. Medical care for employees in event of sickness is furnished gratuitously by many large companies. Sometimes this free service may even include dental work and

⁹Philip Kling Brown, "Industry's Answer," *Survey Graphic*, LXIII, 7, 398-401, 1930

nursing service and embrace not only the employees but their families as well. Such is the case with the workers' medical service of the Endicott Johnson Corporation.¹⁰ More commonly, however, extensive medical service of this sort is financed by periodic dues from the employees supplemented by substantial contributions from the employer.

ADVANTAGES OF INDUSTRIAL-HEALTH SERVICE

The social value of industrial-health service is inestimable. The worker profits by the early discovery of disease and the likelihood of an earlier cure. If afflicted with an organic disease which can be controlled he may be shifted to such tasks as can be performed by him without strain or evil after effects. Moreover, he is provided with better medical care when sick and better surgical care when injured than he could normally afford. The employer benefits by a reduction of absenteeism resulting from the prevention of sickness, the prevention of infection following injuries, and proper treatment of serious injuries. A well-equipped medical service brings about a reduction of accident-insurance rates and assists in the preservation of the health of valued workers. It also helps to eliminate employees' complaints and inspires their confidence and good will. There is less need for training new employees at considerable cost and the general efficiency of the stable working force is greatly enhanced.¹¹ The cost of medical health service to the employer varies according to the types and hazards of the work and the extent of the service rendered. It is estimated that medical supervision commonly averages about \$5.00 per employee for one year,¹² but it is unlikely that any well-balanced service can be maintained for less than \$10.00 per capita.¹³ The cost per individual to whom the Endicott Johnson workers' medical

¹⁰Niles Carpenter, *Medical Care for 15,000 Workers and Their Families* (Washington, D. C. Committee on the Cost of Medical Care, 1930), p. 10. Abstract of Publication No. 5.

¹¹W. Irving Clark, *Health Service in Industry* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1922), pp. 152-159.

¹²*Ibid.*, p. 151. Also Health Bulletin No. 5, Insurance Department, Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

¹³Wade Wright, *The Health of Office Workers* (New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1927), pp. 32-33.

service was available amounted to \$21.81 for the year 1928, but this must be taken as an example of a most complete and extensive medical service.¹⁴

Safety engineering naturally stands forth as one of the most important aspects of industrial health service. Truly, the impetus came from compulsory legal requirements for certain minimum standards of safety, but it is encouraging to note that large numbers of corporations now go far beyond these minimum standards and voluntarily spend vast sums to provide better and safer places of work for their employees. The fact that 75 per cent or more of all industrial accidents have been shown to be preventable definitely establishes the value of preventive work. Thus the Committee on the Elimination of Waste in Industry estimates that about 75 per cent of all accidents could be avoided.¹⁵ English authorities cite about the same ratio¹⁶ and in England compulsory safety legislation is far more comprehensive than in most American States. Many instances could be cited to illustrate both the economic and social values of safety engineering. The United States Steel Corporation over a period of 22 years, from 1906 to 1928, reduced its serious accident rate by more than 64 per cent, thereby saving 58,000 workers from serious injury. The Westinghouse Company of Pittsburgh operated 59 years with only twelve fatal accidents, and the Ford Motor Company over a period of twelve years reduced the injury rate 80 per cent notwithstanding the creation of new hazards by the introduction of swifter and more powerful machinery.¹⁷ In a single year the Bethlehem Steel Company reduced the number of days lost per worker 65 per cent.¹⁸ The achievements of the above mentioned corporations and a host of others are indicative of the growing trend in favor of safety engineering. In a number of industrial

¹⁴Carpenter, *op cit*, p 10

¹⁵American Engineering Council Committee on Elimination of Waste in Industry of the Federated American Engineering Societies, *Waste in Industry* (New York McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1921), p 333

¹⁶J. L. Cohen, *Workmen's Compensation in Great Britain* (London, Post Magazine, 1923), p. 461

¹⁷Bowers, *op cit*, pp 152-155

¹⁸*Waste in Industry*, p 333.

fields there has been a decided downward tendency in the frequency and severity of accidents. This is particularly noticeable in the iron and steel, railroad, and automotive industries. Accidents in 700 industrial establishments reporting to the National Safety Council showed a noteworthy decline from 1926 to 1928. Thus 50,772 accidents were reported in 1926, 42,398 in 1927, and 39,872 in 1928. During the same period fatalities declined 14.2 per cent, permanent injuries 27.4 per cent, and temporary injuries 21.3 per cent.¹⁹ Ten years ago there were over 2,500 deaths of employees annually in railroad operations. In 1930 the number was only 974. Similarly, the last decade has witnessed a reduction of more than 15 per cent in mining deaths.²⁰

Evidence at hand indicates that, regardless of industry, large companies have been more successful than small ones in preventing industrial injuries. Thus the National Safety Council points out that such injuries are only half as numerous, considering hours worked, in establishments employing 1,000 or more men, as in the smaller units with less than 100 men at work. In fact, each successive increase in the size of the establishment brings a corresponding decrease in the injury frequency rate. The same tendency is to be observed in the accident severity rates.²¹

PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND SAFETY

In addition to the Governmental agencies charged with the administration of laws regarding the safety of working places, equipment, and methods of work, various other public agencies have a part in the promotion of industrial hygiene and safety. The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor collects and publishes data regarding industrial accidents and occupational diseases. The Bureau of Mines conducts safety demonstrations and the United States Public Health Service has conducted various health surveys in industry. It would

¹⁹*Monthly Labor Review* (Washington, D C Government Printing Office, 1930), xxx, 2, p 90-91

²⁰*Accident Facts*, 1931, pp 52-53

²¹*Accident Facts*, 1931, pp 53-54

also serve a useful purpose if it were enabled to collect adequate reports on occupational diseases and industrial accidents, but this would be rendered difficult because of the wide variations in State practice. State industrial commissions often have the power to act as clearing houses for the dissemination of knowledge regarding industrial hygiene and to suggest safety codes and methods. A similar activity is frequently carried on by local chambers of commerce. In some cities industrial hygiene has become an important municipal function but, generally speaking, this is almost entirely a function of the State. In only a few instances do city health departments collect data on the number, character, or sanitation of industries within their borders. There is not, as a rule, much coöperation between city officers and the State industrial commissions, and information collected by a State agency regarding such matters as occupational diseases reported, insanitary workplaces, and the like is seldom relayed to local officers. In a few cities the health officer has authority to prevent industrial hazards, in a few others the health department may require notification of industrial diseases, and occasionally the department has the power to study and investigate industrial diseases. More often local governments are empowered to undertake educational measures.²² New York City maintains an occupational disease clinic in each borough.

PRIVATE AGENCIES FOR INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND SAFETY

In 1911 the American Museum of Safety was founded for the purpose of preventing injuries and eliminating industrial and other hazards. In the Museum are displayed safety devices of all descriptions. Two years later the National Safety Council was organized. This is a co-operative service organization dedicated to the advancement of accident prevention and now numbers several

²²"Municipal Health Department Practice for the Year 1923," Public Health Bulletin No. 164, United States Public Health Service (Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office, 1923), pp. 340-347.

thousand members including representatives of railroads, mining companies, manufacturing concerns, etc. It also embraces in its membership technical schools and chambers of commerce. Its functions are as follows: to inform members regarding safety methods; to assist in the standardization of safety devices; and to promote new schemes for the conservation of human life in industry. Industrial-member companies are divided into trade sections representing manufacturing groups having similar occupational hazards. Thus one finds an automotive section, a metals section with a number of subdivisions, and sections on rubber manufacturing, woodworking, and paper and pulp production, to mention but a few. The decline in the frequency and the severity of accidents in the various trade sections of the National Safety Council attests the value of its work and the genuine interest and cooperative spirit of its members in safety work. Another organization aiming at the simplification and the standardization of accident prevention is the American Engineering Standards Committee. The American Association for Labor Legislation and the American Public Health Association, which has a section on industrial hygiene, must also be mentioned for their work in this general field.

THE SAFETY ORGANIZATION

To be effective safety work within an industrial plant must be carefully organized and directed. The machinery which is set up for this purpose is commonly known as the safety organization. This is not to be thought of as something separate and apart from the regular operating organization of the factory but, rather, the adaptation of the regular operating organization to the purpose of accident prevention. The general functions of the safety organization are about as follows: to supervise and direct all safety activity; to determine standard methods of safe operation and standards for mechanical safeguarding; to

investigate accidents, fix responsibilities, and impose discipline when necessary; to plan and direct all parts of the educational campaign. Within a large industrial plant there may be several committees engaged in safety work. Thus the plant or general safety committee, which usually consists of the manager, department superintendent, plant engineers, employment manager, physician, and safety engineer, has general charge of the safety campaign. Its chief duties involve the receiving and reviewing of reports from the safety engineer, department, or subsidiary committees; formulating and revising company standards covering safe operating practices and equipment; inspections; planning special safety drives and selecting posters and literature on safety work. Direct cooperation of the employees is sought through the creation of workmen's safety committees. Such committees made up of the workers themselves are invaluable in discovering and correcting hazards which might otherwise escape the attention of the superintendent, foreman, or safety inspector, and are helpful in convincing the men that a large percentage of accidents are due to unsafe methods of work rather than to defective equipment. The workmen's committee makes frequent inspections, reports defective or unsafe equipment, and offers its own recommendations; its most important service is in ferreting out unsafe practices and suggesting safer ways of performing various tasks. The safety engineer's duty is to coordinate and make effective the entire safety program.

Safety meetings are frequently organized to develop a mass feeling for safety. Motion pictures and lantern slides afford excellent means of visual instruction showing how accidents happen and what preventive methods may be resorted to. Similarly, use is made of posters, accident record charts, photographs, and other material, and demonstrations may be given regarding fire-extinguishing materials, the use of goggles, protective clothing, and special safety equipment. Permanent signs of an instructional

or warning nature, safety messages in the form of occasional letters to employees, and safety items in the company magazine are other valuable expedients.²³

²³For a complete exposition of safety methods and safety organization see Sidney J. Williams, *The Manual of Industrial Safety* (Chicago: A. W. Shaw and Company, 1927), viii+207 pages; Fred G. Lange, *Handbook of Safety and Accident Prevention* (New York, The Engineering Magazine Company, 1926), xxiv+612 pages; Lewis A. DeBlois, *Industrial Safety Organization for Executive and Engineer* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1926), xiii+328 pages; H. W. Heinrich, *Industrial Accident Prevention* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1931), x+366 pages; E. George Payne, *Education in Accident Prevention* (New York: Lyons and Carnahan, 1919), 176 pages, furnishes excellent data on accident prevention in general as a part of the regular school instruction, which naturally is carried over to industry by the formation of proper attitudes and habits. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has published a number of valuable pamphlets known as the Industrial Safety Series.

REPORT OF CLUB SURVEY AT KEENE, NEW HAMPSHIRE

WALTER E. HAMMOND

A short time ago a group of people interested in the welfare of our youth met to discuss some of the problems pertaining to young folks that seemed to need some consideration. The suggestion was made that the various organizations interested in club work for boys and girls might help solve the problem of leisure time by expanding their programs. Representatives of these agencies objected on the ground that the city, including the children, was already "over-clubbed." They based their judgment for this statement on the fact that whenever an extra meeting of a particular association was desired, it was almost impossible not to conflict with a regular meeting of some other association to which some of their members likewise belonged. The question of the children being "over-clubbed" having been challenged it was felt desirable to carry on a survey of every boy and girl nine years of age and over to ascertain just how effective the present program was. As the superintendent of schools had been active in developing the club idea in connection with hobbies in the high school, he himself felt that an opportunity to check the effectiveness of his own program was before him and he gave his cooperation with the other field agencies to secure the desired information.

Tables accompanying this article were made up from the data obtained. The final percentages, 41.5 per cent for boys in no clubs and 39.87 per cent for girls in no clubs, tend to give an incorrect picture. School clubs are all held during school hours and can cause no conflict with outside activities. The fact that 72.8 per cent of the boys have no activity outside of school clubs and that 75.2 per cent of the girls are in a similar situation is no indication that the boys or girls at any age are "over-clubbed." A

summary of "club members" gives a total of 653 for all ages (boys). The figures show 324 boys out of 779 in no clubs or 455 in various kinds of clubs. Now subtracting the number (203) in school clubs from the 455 in various clubs we find but 252 boys in nonschool clubs. Dividing this number into the total club membership minus the number in school clubs only, we get the information that each boy attending clubs outside of school is a member of 1.7 clubs on the average. The fact is that some are members of as many as 6 different organizations. Certain types seem more attracted to club organizations than others

SURVEY OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES—KEENE
Number of Boys and Girls Surveyed by Age Groups

Age	Girls	Boys
9	90	87
10	88	81
11	102	98
12	110	96
13	104	103
14	82	101
15	107	77
16	58	68
17	52	39
18	15	20
19	4	10
20	1	1
21	1	—
22	1	—
Total	815	779

SURVEY OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES—KEENE
Boys

Age	Sunday School	Church or School Club	Y M C A	Boy Scouts	DeMolay	Pioneers	Friendly Indian	Epworth League or C. E.	Other	Total
9	37	13	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	20
10	23	12	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	26
11	32	23	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	37
12	42	27	16	7	—	2	—	—	—	52
13	46	76	19	23	—	14	—	—	—	137
14	30	67	24	18	—	6	2	—	—	116
15	23	64	18	7	1	7	—	—	—	97
16	19	49	18	5	6	3	—	—	—	82
17	9	40	9	2	6	—	—	—	—	61
18	6	15	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	18
19	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7
20	1	1	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	1
Total	268	381	124	65	15	32	14	8	5	653

Total number boys surveyed—779

Total number boys in school clubs only—203

Total number boys in no clubs—324

Per cent in no activity outside of school clubs—72.8

Per cent in no clubs—41.6

Report of Club Survey

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SURVEY OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES—KEENE Girls

Age	Sunday School	Church or School Club	Y. W. C. A.	World Wide Guild	Epworth League	Polyfunders	4-H	Rainbows	Salvation Army	Girl Scouts	Other	Total
9	44	18				5						69
10	38	13	2		2	4	1		1			63
11	50	34				2	2					93
12	43	39	4		2	3	2					107
13	40	84			1	5	5			12		148
14	34	82		4		5	5	6	1	12		148
15	46	113		3	1	5	5	7		25		199
16	30	62	1	2	1	5	5	14		25		188
17	14	47		2	3	1	5	9		1		116
18	6	13		2			5	4				82
19	2	3		1								27
20		3										3
21		1										1
22		1										1
Total	347	516	8	14	10	26	24	40	2	44	19	1050

Total number girls surveyed—815

Total number girls in school clubs only—288

Total number girls in no clubs—325

Per cent in no activity outside of school—76.2

Per cent in no clubs—39.87

Outside of the high school, the schools themselves are not functioning any too well in developing organized groups of children. The high-school plan will be carried into the grades in the hope that being given a "taste" of organized club work we may find our youth more eager to engage in those pursuits outside of their school time and club activities may actually function in making the best use of leisure time.

It might be interesting to note that the scouting program as developed here was claimed to be sufficient to care for the needs of the city. Boy scouts take care of boys from 12 to 18. We have 433 such boys in Keene. According to the table 65 boys are being reached by this organization. Arranged in the following form the facts are more evident.

Ages	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Available boys	96	103	101	77	66	39	20
Reached by B. S. A.	7	23	16	7	5	2	1

The Boy Scout organization was not selected to show the field still untouched by them because they were failing more than other groups but rather because they have been the first to respond to the situation. The New Hampshire State Council of the Boy Scout Association soon

meets in Keene to formulate plans for extending the scouting organization here. The results of the survey are included in this article to encourage others to make similar surveys leading to possibly similar results. Incidentally it might be well to add that it was neither the largest nor the most influential organization that precipitated this study but a little group reaching 24 girls; namely, our 4-H Club Workers. The willingness to "do" seems to be present on the outside but there are many difficulties to be overcome in "locating" the available children. Why not cooperate in acquainting these outside workers with the available children? They would find securing such data impossible without our aid. Let us, as school superintendents, help!

EDUCATING THE EDUCATORS—IN-SERVICE TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES FOR COLLEGE TEACHERS

ARCHIE M. PALMER

The demands made upon our colleges and universities, especially since the World War, for an enlarged and more effective service have stimulated a widespread professional interest in problems of higher education. One evidence of this interest is the decided movement on the part of those engaged in college administration and college teaching to seek guidance and improvement in their chosen work. In response to this demand professional courses dealing with problems in this field are to be found listed in nearly forty university and college catalogues.

Not only do faculty members and graduate students planning to enter the college teaching profession seek subject-matter courses in their chosen fields, but they also demand professional courses designed to improve their teaching technique and to provide them with a broad conception of the college enterprise. College administrators are also being attracted by the opportunities offered for the study and discussion of problems in the field of higher education.

Systematic instruction in college administration and college teaching was first given at Teachers College of Columbia University and at Purdue University. In 1923-1924 Teachers College offered a general course on college administration for graduate students interested in the problems of the American college, while that same year Purdue University offered a course, Psychology of Learning and Teaching Applied to College Work, intended primarily for its own assistants and instructors but also occasionally attended since its inception by those of professorial rank and by graduate students who had had teaching experience. The course at Purdue, which is given only in alter-

nate years, is designed to review the psychology of learning and teaching and to make a critical study of modern methods and techniques of teaching in colleges.

The variety and scope of the courses on the organization and administration of higher education, which have now been offered at Teachers College of Columbia University for the past nine years, have been steadily increasing. During that period opportunity has been offered for the study and discussion of a wide range of problems in the field of higher education to some 540 instructors, administrative officers, and others interested in higher educational institutions. The positions they hold are indicative of the types of college officials who have taken advantage of these courses. Included in the group who have studied at this particular institution are 45 college presidents, 66 deans, 30 registrars, 6 deans of men, 19 deans of women, 36 heads of departments, 128 college professors and instructors, 4 directors of research, 3 directors of personnel, 5 assistants to presidents, 4 librarians, 2 treasurers, 2 business managers, and a number of others in various college or other educational positions.

The summer vacation seems to be the most popular time for conducting professional courses on higher education. Not only are college administrators and college teachers more likely to be able to attend courses then, but there is also better opportunity for enlisting the services of specialists and experienced workers in the field to direct the work of these groups during the summer months.

Twenty-seven institutions offered courses on various aspects of college administration and college teaching during the past summer. Included in the group were the Universities of California, Chicago, Cincinnati, Colorado, Iowa, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pittsburgh, Southern California, Washington, and Wisconsin; Duke, Indiana, New York, Northwestern, Ohio State, Stanford, and Western Reserve Universities; Colorado State Teachers

College, George Peabody College for Teachers, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, and Teachers College of Columbia University.

The regular teaching staffs of these institutions were augmented by a number of specialists and experienced workers in the college administrative and teaching fields. Among those giving their services last summer were a number of college presidents, including Frank L. McVey of the University of Kentucky, George F. Zook of the University of Akron, Homer P. Rainey of Bucknell University, and Wendell S. Brooks of Intermountain Union College; former presidents Clarence C. Little of the University of Michigan, George A. Works of the Connecticut Agricultural College, and A. M. Stowe of the University of the City of Toledo; Vice President C. S. Yoakum of the University of Michigan; and a number of presidents of teachers colleges. Deans H. D. Sheldon of the University of Oregon, Shelton Phelps of George Peabody College, H. L. Smith of Indiana University, Charles E. Friley of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, and A. J. Brumbaugh of the University of Chicago also conducted courses this past summer, as did Registrars Ezra L. Gillis of the University of Kentucky, J. R. Robinson of George Peabody College, and many other experienced survey and research workers in the field of higher education.

While the offerings at most of the institutions were limited to a single course or two on selected phases of the field, more comprehensive and varied programs were available at several institutions, particularly at the University of Chicago, Teachers College of Columbia University, the University of Michigan, Ohio State University, and the University of Pittsburgh. Basic or general courses on the organization and administration of the American college and university, as well as specific problems of instruction and of the professional duties of the various administrative officers, both academic and business, were offered at

these five institutions. General courses were also given at the University of Colorado, Indiana University, the University of Kentucky, the University of Minnesota, New York University, Duke University, and Western Reserve University.

In addition to the sequence of courses offered at the University of Chicago an institute for administrative officers of higher institutions was held. The central theme of the institute last summer was recent trends in American college education. A conference for the discussion of both internal and external problems of the junior college was held at the University of Pittsburgh.

Considerable attention was given to questions of college instruction and its improvement in the courses offered this past summer, both in the basic courses and also in specific courses on this subject, which were conducted at a number of institutions. Courses on training-school problems in the professional education of teachers, intended primarily for those concerned with teacher-training institutions, were offered at the Universities of Chicago, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, the Colorado State Teachers College, Teachers College of Columbia University, and George Peabody College for Teachers. These courses included the consideration of both administrative and instructional problems.

Courses of particular value to those concerned with or interested in the office of the college registrar were offered at the Universities of Chicago and Kentucky, at George Peabody College for Teachers, and at Teachers College. Special courses on the financial and business administration of higher institutions were offered at the University of Chicago and at Teachers College. Instruction in publicity and public relations and in vocational guidance in colleges was also given at Teachers College. Instruction in the work of deans of men, deans of women, and other college personnel officers was announced among the offerings at the Universities of Chicago, Iowa, Michigan, Pittsburgh,

and Southern California, New York University, and Teachers College of Columbia University.

The following institutions offered specific courses on the junior college last summer: the Universities of California, Chicago, Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Southern California, and Washington; Duke, New York, Northwestern, Ohio State, and Stanford Universities; George Peabody College for Teachers and Teachers College of Columbia University. These courses were intended both for administrators and instructors in junior colleges and for those interested in learning about this important educational movement. Superintendents of schools, principals, and directors of junior colleges, as well as professors of secondary education, were among those conducting summer offerings in this field. During the regular school year similar courses on problems related specifically to the junior college have also been offered at the Universities of Alabama, Arkansas, Cincinnati, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, and Texas; and at George Washington, Stanford, and Yale Universities.

Although three of the twenty institutions, which in 1930 announced summer courses on the professional study of problems of higher education, did not offer such courses this past summer the number of institutions was augmented by ten new ones, bringing the total number of institutions announcing such summer courses in 1931 to twenty-seven. The individual course offerings have also been expanded materially both in number and in scope, and in addition to these specific professional courses there are offered, both in summer sessions and during the academic year, many courses on the history, principles, and philosophy of education and in particular subject-matter fields which are of value and interest to college teachers and administrators.

Those able to absent themselves from their official duties during the regular academic year find general courses on college-administrative and teaching problems offered at

the Universities of Chicago, Cincinnati, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, Notre Dame, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pittsburgh, and Southern California; at Cornell, George Washington, Indiana, New York, Ohio State, Stanford, Western Reserve, and Yale Universities; at George Peabody College for Teachers, Iowa State College, Pennsylvania State College, and Teachers College of Columbia University; and in alternate years at Purdue University. Some years ago a seminar in problems of higher education was started at Harvard University by the dean of the Graduate School of Education but, while successful, it was discontinued because of the pressure of other duties.

Special libraries in the field of higher education have been established at a number of institutions as valuable by-products of the instructional phase of these professional courses. Bibliographies on the different aspects of college administration have been compiled. Significant research studies have been made and publications, including Ph.D. dissertations, have resulted. At several institutions the students in the courses as well as the staff have been afforded opportunity to participate in surveys of individual colleges, of groups of colleges, and of entire State systems of education.

These summer sessions conducted on college and university campuses have provided an immeasurable stimulus to the professional growth of college faculties and a steadily increasing number of college administrators and teachers have been taking advantage of the opportunities for in-service improvement offered during the long vacation period. A decade ago the principal groups served in summer sessions were undergraduate students, many of them making up scholastic deficiencies, but now the predominating group is composed of teachers and other professional men and women who are unable to attend courses during the academic year.

That so many institutions are making this positive endeavor to meet a real need and to develop a science of

college administration is most encouraging. Furthermore, the heads of schools of education at a number of other institutions have indicated to the writer a keen interest in the introduction of professional courses in college administration and teaching, so there is every indication that the number of such courses will steadily increase.

TEXTBOOKS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

DAVID SNEDDEN

Professor Bernard's article in *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* for October 1931 suggests to the present commentator certain opportunities for improved "pedagogy" which he thinks are being woefully neglected in current developments in college classes of the super-rich subject of social psychology.

Professor Bernard seems to approve that the purpose of the writer of a textbook in this field which derives from a conviction "that only very few students are going to be investigators in the science of social psychology, but that perhaps ninety-nine out of each hundred will take the course for the purpose of understanding human nature and functional human and group relationship."

Amen to that! At least in all liberal-college or arts-and-science university departments the expected functionings of this course should be conspicuously in the field of liberal, as contrasted with preprofessional, educations. And, having that purpose in view, Professor Bernard seems to favor the textbook that "sets forth the results of investigation without much reference to the methods by which these results were achieved." Surely all pedagogically minded college instructors—may their tribe increase—can well approve of that ideal.

For purposes of this paper, then, let us assume that the course or courses based on the textbooks under consideration are regarded as contributions to the liberal (nonvocational) educations of undergraduates. But liberal educations, as the present writer conceives them, embrace several ranges or genera of considerably diverse objectives, of which the two classes of chief concern to the social psychologist are those contributing respectively to personal culture (capacities for superior personal utilization of the

finer things of life) and to superior social coöperations—patriotic, democratic, familistic, etc.

Eventually an advanced science of educational values will strongly indicate the desirability of offering to liberal-college students two quite distinctive courses in social psychology—the first to minister to those higher curiosities and interests in human-group action wherever found, and quite without practical purpose; and the second rather directly framed to provide the insights and ideals by which the youth of today may be helped to become the superior cooperators of a few years hence in voting, in dealing as citizens with crime, vice, and poverty, in helping towards the building of fine family life, and in sharing the alert citizen's responsibilities of urban planning, international harmonizations, and other large-scale social constructions and supervisions.

But it is too early to expect such scientific differentiation of objectives and courses as yet. So let us proceed to consider the characteristics of a single course using one or more textbooks.

Most textbooks at high-school or college levels which aim to be really "comprehensive" seem certain to be pretty dreary affairs. "A textbook that is intended to be a treatise on social psychology should, it seems to me, cover the whole range of psychological processes or behavior adjustments in society," says Professor Bernard in the article referred to. But to do that, as the field is now expanding, the textbook will have to be as compressed and dried-up as a mummy or else it should run to 20,000 pages or more. Of course a twenty-thousand-page reference work, in so new and fascinating a field as social psychology, would serve as a treasure house to a pedagogically wise instructor who had effectively planned, for example, a one-semester course and who used the treatise deliberately as a source of reference readings. But many younger instructors are not independent enough to do that.

Hence, it is suggested that at least some of our more

able social psychologists should undertake to produce guides or handbooks for young college teachers and their students, which handbooks should be neither encyclopaedic treatises nor yet highly compressed and inevitably dessicated outlines—and what plagues to freshness and interest outlines or dried-up syllabi can become!

But the foregoing considerations are forcing us at last to close grip with the basic problems of all: What should be the specific objectives of a liberal (merged cultural and civistic) one-semester course in social psychology? Upon what materials should it most draw? And what methods of presentation should prove especially fruitful? Granted either considerable agreement of social psychologists on answers to these, or else much originative ingenuity on the part of a path breaker among them, we certainly have indicated the scope and form of the proposed textbook, have we not? Towards adding to the gayety of nations let the writer express his opinions on the above questions, in view of the fact that in so much of his efforts to derive and apply to educational policy making the useful and usable findings of the social sciences—and certainly including much of social psychology—he has so often been confronted by problems closely akin to those to be solved by the social psychologist in trying to construct and present really functional liberal courses in his field.

The specific objectives of the one-semester course should not include attempts to survey the entire field—of distant life and near life, primitive life and sophisticated life, war life and peace life, working life and play life, city life and rural life, married life and celibate life. Even in much less complicated fields such as physics, geology, or biology the liberalizing educational effects of one-semester courses are killed by the logical determinations of instructors to achieve comprehensiveness.

Let us think of the course as we might think of a three months' trip to Europe—as a kind of gigantic sampling. But sampling of what? Well, first, the areas, places, and

topics that promise most of appreciational enrichment to our kind of persons in our times. And second, samplings of the areas now practicable of access.

Or let us think analogically of a one-semester's course in American poetry, with its thousands of possible authors and volumes, its hundreds of thousands of poems. What are the not too many which are most significant—significant for our day's historical interpretations, perspectives, interests in crises and transitions, changes of popular sentiment?

Next, what materials? Here the present writer thinks Dr. Bernard too modest, too restrained in his outlook. What he has to say about limitations in the sources and in the applications of the results of the experimental method is well taken.

But, for pedagogical purposes, why does he not give far more attention to the world of each student's own experiences? Why, too, does he not find far more analogies between effective methods for social psychology and those of geology than with those of chemistry?

Each student in a course in social psychology has lived all his days amidst the cohesions, the tensions, and the oppositions of persons in social groups. He has seen and shared in much of jealousies, friendlinesses, dominations, herd formations, rivalries, lusts, hero worshipings, intolerances, and hundreds of other nameable and unnameable human reactions. He himself has been conscious in scores of ways of those appetites, repulsions, longings, and apprehensions which, at least to the partly informed mind, must seem a part of instinctive or original nature because it is so difficult—perhaps impossible, in spite of the psychologists—to ascribe their origins to sources in the persons or acts of other human beings.

Even the unreflective student has personally experienced or been a near witness to hundreds of the social relationships which tie together mother and child, husband and wife, chums, friends, business partners, employer and employee, leader and follower. And, hardly less, is he rich

in experiences, personal or secondhand, of the causes, processes, and effects of strains and disruptions in such relationships?

Like a Western prospector who has "studied every inch of Mohave county," though, as yet he be no geologist, or like a Ulysses who "is a part of all that he has met—cities, councils, governments," the student is replete with the raw materials out of which the amateur social psychologist—that is, the practitioner of culture and civism—can readily be fashioned, provided the instructor draw upon and organize these highly localized and personal riches rather than spend most of his time fetching argosies of strange goods from afar.

Which brings us to the methods, first to guide in organizing the course—and the handbook for the younger instructors—and, second, in pursuing its particular purposes by day-to-day lectures, field observations, reading of the results of research, and even more discreet reading of such of those intuitive interpreters—some essayists, some novelists, some dramatists, some poets—who are able to reach into the hearts of things. How many decades of social psychological research will ever give us what that curious seer, Bernard Shaw, has given us in his preface to *Saint Joan*?

But it requires very fine techniques to tap, interpret, generalize, and reapply for further growths the rich, already acquired experiences and the still hungry outreachings of youthful learners in these fields. Unfortunately, most Ph.D. and college-instructorship-bred teachers are still fairly contemptuous of any sustained study of the "arts" of good teaching methods—but that condition will improve.

In certain of his own books on educational sociology the writer has employed, in face of the doubtings of publishers but with much success at least in his own classes, various kinds of graded questions under the title *Interpretations of (Personal) Experience*. It is entirely prac-

ticable, of course, to devise on any topic of everyday life a series of leading, even cross-examining, questions which will induce the student to recall occurrences and valuations in his own life or that observed in others, and to pass on to a series of tentative inferences and even generalizations—and so prepare himself apperceptively for vital response to, and assimilation of, the instructor's more fundamental presentations.

The writer believes that during the next few years decisive and perhaps rapid trends will take place in the curricula of secondary and collegiate liberal educations towards the use of present-day and future problems, the living materials of today, and the methods of using to the full first-hand experiences of learners. We shall in literatures leave the classical behind us, in the sciences we shall use appreciation-producing rather than logically organized approaches, and through the mental and social sciences we shall seek realistic interpretations of our own personal lives and group associations, leaving here, too, much of old history far to the rear.

In pursuit of these ideals there is no good reason why *social psychology* should not provide some of the most fruitful courses in the new liberal education.

AN ATTEMPT TO RELATE SOCIOLOGY TO TEACHERS' ACTIVITIES

FLORENCE ZELENY¹

In an attempt to eliminate to some extent the influence of personal bias (not necessarily group bias) from the determination of the content of a course in educational sociology, the Charters-Waples "Master List of Teachers' Activities"² was sent to twenty-eight of the twenty-nine editors and contributing editors of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* with the request that they indicate on the check list the activities of teachers which they think may be performed more effectively through a knowledge of sociology. Eighteen or 62 per cent of the group responded to the request. These opinions were organized and listed in a master table entitled, "Sociological Aspects of the Teacher's Job."³ It is to be observed that these opinions are expressed in terms of the activities teachers are actually found to perform.

It is believed that these activities may be used to help guide in the organization of functional courses in educational sociology. There probably are activities that may be added to a course which teachers should perform but do not. This study is not to be considered as final but, rather, suggestive of the sociological aspects of teachers' activities and of problems for research in educational sociology.

The master table shows 197 activities from the complete list of 913 activities listed by Charters and Waples. These 197 activities were checked by 11 (61 per cent) or

¹This study was prepared by the author under the direction of Ross L. Finney, University of Minnesota, and L. D. Zeleny, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn. It is to serve as a guide for determining the content of a forthcoming text in educational sociology by Drs. Finney and Zeleny.

²W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929), xx+666 pp. This extensive study of the activities of teachers was financed by the Commonwealth Fund in order to procure a functional study of teaching.

³It was finally necessary to omit the complete table from this article due to space limitations.

more of the 18 experts. Following each activity listed is a check if it was ranked for importance in deciles 1-5, inclusive, by a representative group of educators, a second check if ranked for difficulty in deciles 1-5; and a third check if it was ranked for desirability of pre-service training in deciles 1-5. The decile rankings given by the educators for importance, difficulty, and pre-service training were taken from the summary tables B, C, and D of *The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study*, but for this study it was necessary to find the arithmetical mean of the rankings given by the educators for each of the activities in the list.⁴ Those evaluating the activities were University of Chicago graduates, city high-school principals, supervisors of practice teaching (secondary grades), college instructors of secondary education, city junior-high-school teachers, intermediate teachers, kindergarten-primary teachers, rural teachers, city elementary-school principals, city supervisors of elementary grades, supervisors of practice teaching in elementary grades, and college instructors in elementary education; and in the ranking for importance, teachers in elementary experimental schools are added to the list.

Each activity in the list that 15-18 of the experts checked is starred to show its probable importance and those activities which in addition to being checked by 15-18 experts are ranked in deciles 1-5 for importance, difficulty, and desirability of pre-service training are double starred.

MASTER TABLE I (ABRIDGED)

Sociological Aspects of the Teacher's Job

(This abridged table only gives the activities considered important by the sociologists or by the sociologists and the educators. It includes the starred and double starred items only)

*Selecting objectives

**Planning, selection, and organization of subject matter

**Planning methods of developing interests

**Planning methods of evaluating pupils' needs, interests, and achievements

*Planning methods of developing teachers' personal traits

⁴Charters and Waples, *op cit.*, p 536 620

- **Defining general objectives for the grade or subject
- **Evaluating objectives
- **Defining objectives in the conduct of pupils' classroom and extra-classroom activities
- *Explaining to pupils reasons for the performance of classroom and extraclassroom activities.
- *Complying with social conventions
- *Acting courteously towards others
- *Respecting desires and welfare of others
- *Meeting personal obligations as a member of the school
- *Acting courteously towards teachers
- *Conforming to school customs
- **Determining traits to be taught
- *Protecting school community
- *Establishing cordial relations with pupils
- *Obtaining information about pupils
- **Giving advice and information to parents
- *Giving advice and information to occupational groups and social organizations
- **Giving assistance to parents
- *Giving assistance to occupational groups and social organizations
- *Obtaining advice and information from parents, occupational groups, and social organizations
- *Establishing cordial relations with parents
- *Developing a cooperative spirit in occupational groups
- *Helping to enforce child-welfare laws against occupational groups
- *Acting as mediator between parents, occupations groups, social organizations, and between members of the community at large
- *Participation in meetings of parents

The original master table reveals the fact that 197 activities or 21.6 per cent of the complete list of 913 activities in the Check List of Teachers' Activities were checked by at least 11 of the 18 editors and contributing editors of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* who participated in this study as those activities which could probably be performed more effectively through a knowledge of sociology.

In division I, Teachers' Activities Involved in Classroom Instruction, subdivision A, Teaching Subject Matter, 23 or 32.4 per cent of the 71 activities listed by Charters and Waples were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges; 7 of the activities were starred; *i.e.*, checked by 15-18 judges; and 6 were double starred; *i.e.*, checked by 15-18

judges and ranked in deciles 1-5 for importance, difficulty, and desirability of pre-service training.

In division I, subdivision B, Teaching Pupils to Study, 3 of the 37 activities were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges.

In division II, Teachers' Activities Involved in School and Class Management, subdivision A, Activities Involved in Recording and Reporting Facts Concerning Pupils, of the 153 activities listed only 1 was checked by 11 of the 18 judges.

In division II, subdivision B, Activities Involving Contacts with Pupils, 71 or 34.6 per cent of the 205 activities listed were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges. Of these 77 activities, 16 were starred and 2 double starred.

In division III, Activities Involving Supervision of Pupils' Extraclass Activities (exclusive of activities involved in school and classroom management), 55 or 37.5 per cent of the 146 activities listed, were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges; 6 were starred and none were double starred.

In division IV, Activities Involving Relationships with the Personnel of the School Staff, none of the 200 activities listed was checked by 11 of the 18 judges.

In division V, Teachers' Activities Involving Relations with Members of School Community, 43 or 100 per cent of the 43 activities listed were checked by at least 11 of the 18 judges. Of these activities 17 were starred and 2 double starred.

In division VI, Activities Concerned with Professional and Personal Advancement, 1 of the 38 activities listed was checked by 11 of the 18 judges.

In division VII, Activities in Connection with School Plant and Supplies, none of the 20 activities listed was checked by 11 of the 18 judges.

The preceding analysis, which shows the relative importance of the major divisions of the Charters-Waples list according to the educational sociologists, may be summar-

ized and compared with rankings of the same activities made by the large group of educators represented in the Charters-Waples study. This is accomplished in tables II and III. Table II indicates the activities checked by the educational sociologists and table III indicates various rankings of the educators in general.

TABLE II
The Activities Checked by Educational Sociologists
*Activities checked by
11 of the 18
sociologists*

Divisions of check list	No of activities in the division	Activities checked by		Activities starred		No of activities double starred
		No	Per cent of total No in list	No	Per cent	
Div I—Sub A	71	23	32.4	7	30.4	6
Div I—Sub B	37	3	8.1	—	—	—
Div II—Sub A	153	1	—	—	—	—
Div II—Sub B	205	71	34.6	16	22.5	2
Div. III.	146	55	37.5	6	10.9	—
Div IV.	200	—	—	—	—	—
Div V.	43	43	100.0	17	39.5	2
Div. VI.	38	1	—	—	—	—
Div. VII.	20	—	—	—	—	—
Totals	913	197		46		10

The number and percentage of selected activities in each division ranked by educators in deciles 1-5 for three of the criteria, *i.e.*, importance, difficulty, and desirability of pre-service training. Those ranked in deciles 1-5 for two of the criteria, those ranked in deciles 1-5 for one criterion, and those not ranked in deciles 1-5 for any of the criteria.

TABLE III

Divisions of check list	Activities ranked in deciles 1- 5 for 3 criteria		Activities ranked in deciles 1- 5 for 2 criteria		Activities ranked in deciles 1- 5 for 1 criterion		Activities not ranked in deciles 1-5 for any criteria	
	No	Per cent	No	Per cent	No	Per cent	No	Per cent
Div I—Sub A	17	72.9	2	8.7	4	17.3	—	—
Div I—Sub B	2	66.7	—	—	1	33.3	—	—
Div II—Sub A	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Div II—Sub B	13	18.3	15	21.1	28	39.4	15	21.1
Div III	1	1.8	16	29.1	17	30.9	21	38.2
Div IV	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Div V	3	6.9	10	23.3	13	30.2	17	39.5
Div VI	—	—	1	100	—	—	—	—
Div VII	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Totals	36		44		63		54	

102 or 51.7 per cent of the 197 selected activities were ranked by educators in deciles 1-5 for importance and 72 or 36.5 per cent were ranked in deciles 1-5 for difficulty

Further analysis of the master table reveals certain

major activities of teachers to which sociology may make a contribution. These are presented in Table IV. Column 1 indicates the percentage of the selected activities in relation to the entire list of activities in the division. Column 2 indicates the percentage of the activities in the division that were checked by 15-18 of the judges, and column 3 indicates the percentage ranked by the Charters-Waples group of educators in deciles 1-5 for importance.

TABLE IV
Major Activities of Teachers to which Sociology May Make a Contribution

<i>Activities involving</i>	<i>Per cent of entire division</i>	<i>Per cent checked by 15-18 judges</i>	<i>Per cent ranked by educators in deciles 1-5 for importance</i>
1. Relations with members of school community.	100.0	39.5	23.2
2. Supervision of pupils' extraclass activities.	37.5	10.0	27.3
3. Contacts with pupils.	34.6	22.5	73.3
4. Teaching subject matter.	32.4	30.4	95.7

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

It should be clearly recognized that the conclusions are based on opinions of experts and subject to all the limitations of opinions studied; that a check placed after one activity has not necessarily meant the same as a check placed after another activity; that the number of experts cooperating is small, that the study has not found new activities teachers ought to perform (Charters and Waples found, however, that 25 professors of education and their graduate students could not add activities to the list); that some of the activities may be valueless (these will show low decile rankings); that the activities checked do not necessarily constitute the basis for an entire course in educational sociology, and, that the activities need to be studied from other approaches as well as the sociological. It is probable that sociologists may add some new activities to the list that educators would fail to add.

While 102 of the 197 selected activities of the master table were ranked by representative groups of educators in deciles 1-5 for importance, it may be possible that sociologists, because of a different point of view, might have ranked more as important. The same is true for the

difficulty ranking. Also, if educational sociology is taught in the schools as a study of the community with students carrying on investigations in connection with the course, more of these activities might have been ranked by sociologists in deciles 1-5 for desirability of pre-service training than were ranked thus by the educators.

The present study may suggest the possible content for the construction of part of a course on educational sociology—the course aiming to include the principles and facts, a knowledge of which is important for the performance of the activities selected, and which will include efficient methods for the performance of these activities. Or suggestions for the performance of the activities may serve as illustrations of the basic principles. Or one may check an existing course in educational sociology to determine whether it contains the principles and methods necessary to perform the selected activities and one can note whether the activities treated in the course are those ranking high for importance and difficulty, and note whether the activities ranked important and difficult are the ones that receive the most attention in the course.

This study may also reveal the need of further research in the attempt to determine more effective methods of performing the activities.

AN EVALUATION OF THE OUTSIDE READING INTERESTS OF A GROUP OF SENIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

WILLIAM R. CAIN and FRANCIS J. BROWN

This study is an evaluation of the outside reading interests of adolescent children. The group studied were students in the sophomore and senior years of a senior high school in a suburban town in northern New Jersey.

The list of books read by the students was procured during the regular activities period. On specially prepared forms, so arranged that the students knew that any possibility of identification was eliminated, each child listed all of the books read during the summer vacation and the first three months of the school year exclusive of school assignments.

Table I gives the total and average number of books read by each pupil in the sophomore and senior years of the high school.

TABLE I

	<i>Total number of books read</i>	<i>Average number read by each pupil</i>
Sophomore girls	780	2 7
Sophomore boys	679	2 4
Senior girls	473	2 9
Senior boys	391	1 2

These books were classified in three ways: first, according to those found in the published list of the National Council of Teachers of English; second, according to those written by authors listed in the published list just mentioned; and third, according to the value assigned to them by the writers of this paper.

In this last classification the books were ranked according to their merit in four groups: first, those which are very good; second, those which possess some merit; third, those which are worthless but harmless; and fourth, those which are harmful

In an effort to make this classification as objective as

possible a number of means was used. First, the pupils' list was checked against the list of books for home reading published in December 1930 by the National Council of Teachers of English. Second, the *Book Review Digest* was referred to in the case of many of the books. Third, as many book reviews as could be found in the book-review section of *The New York Times* were used. In addition to using these sources of information the writers checked over the list with several librarians and a teacher of English. Many of the books and authors were also discussed with other teachers and friends who were familiar with them in an effort to get as broad a viewpoint as possible.

This ranking, based upon personal judgment and the sources of information mentioned above, may be justified for several reasons. There is no published book list which ranks the books according to their merit. The Council of English Teachers' list attempts to label the books as suitable for freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors, but this method of listing is of little value. There is no book suitable only for an "average" sophomore or an "average" senior as was proved by the investigation upon which this paper is based. Sophomore and senior tastes run from such authors as Alger, Chadwick, and Hope to Shakespeare, Dickens, Darwin, O'Neill, and George Bernard Shaw. Furthermore, no one published list contains all of the books listed by these pupils.

CLASSIFICATION OF BOOKS

First Classification. Books read by the students which appear in the published list of the National Council of Teachers of English.

Sophomore girls149 books or 22 8 per cent
Sophomore boys145 books or 22 6 per cent
Senior girls	79 books or 16 7 per cent
Senior boys	61 books or 15 6 per cent

Second Classification Books written by authors who are included in the published list of the National Council of

Teachers of English. (This includes the books of the first classification.)

Sophomore girls	294 books or 45.2 per cent
Sophomore boys	277 books or 43.2 per cent
Senior girls	191 books or 40.4 per cent
Senior boys	158 books or 46.0 per cent

Third Classification. Books ranked by the writers of this paper according to their merit.

In some instances in which the authors' names were not given and in which the titles were too general to permit any attempt to determine the author, no information could be obtained about the books. The following answers given by some pupils will illustrate this: *The Devil, Rose, Ten Novels, Arctic Exploration, Ancient Rome, Evolution, Fish, Cleopatra*. There were 323 such answers or 14 per cent of the total omitted from the calculations in this classification.

No attempt was made to rank any book as to its value to an "average" sophomore or an "average" high-school pupil. As was stated previously, the reading range of this group is very extensive. Therefore, the books are ranked according to their literary and, in the case of some non-fiction books, to their utilitarian values. In ranking fiction, the emotional appeal, the intellectual appeal, the treatment of details, characterization, structure, style, etc., were considered. In ranking nonfiction, the author's purpose, the veracity, etc., were also considered.

In some cases different books written by the same author have been given different ranks and the author will therefore be mentioned in two groups.

Group 1. Books ranked as very good. The following books are representative of this group:

Tale of Two Cities, Dickens.
Count of Monte Cristo, Dumas.
Haunted Bookshop, Morley.
All Quiet on the Western Front, Remarque.
Main Street, Lewis.
Laughing Boy, La Farge.
Jalna, de la Roche.
Life of a Cowboy, James.
My Autobiography, Twain.
Napoleon, Ludwig.

The following are some of the authors whose books are included in this group: Shakespeare, Hugo, Verne, Fielding, Cooper, Maurois, Strachey, Barrie, Sienkiewicz, Shaw, Masfield, O'Neill, Erskine, Tarkington, Stevenson.

Group 2. Books ranked as having some merit. Representative books of this group are:

Sherlock Holmes, Doyle.
Forever Free, Morrow.
Dr. Nye, Lincoln.
Red Knight of Germany, Gibbons.
On the Bottom, Ellsberg.
Charlie Chan Carries On, Biggers.
Hangman's House, Byrne.
Vagabond Journey Around the World, Franck.

Books by the following authors are also representative of this group: Arnold Bennett, Zane Grey, London, Ferber, Atherton, G. Stratton Porter, Hemon, Boyd, Churchill, Wharton, Norris, Rinehart.

Group 3. Books ranked as worthless but harmless. Representative books of this group are:

Car of Croesus, Poole.
The Iron Puddler, Davis.
Chances, Gibbs.
Bar 20, Mulford.
God's Country, Curwood.
The Man They Hanged, Chambers.
Potter and the Clay, Hooper.
Big Money, Wodehouse.
Left Tackle Todd, Chadwick.
Burning Beauty, Bailey.

The following are some of the authors whose books are also representative of this group: Wright, Grey, Rohmer, Wallace, Oppenheim, Biggers, Altshelter, Van Dine, Rinehart, London, Beach, Norris.

Group 4. Books ranked as harmful. The following books are representative of this group:

Al Capone—Biography of a Self-Made Man, Pasley.
Louis Beretti, Clarke.
It, Glyn.
Man and Maid, Glyn.
Millie, Clarke.

Strangers May Kiss, Parrott.

War Nurse, Anonymous.

Ex-wife, Anonymous.

Ex-husband, Anonymous.

The per cent of books read, falling in each group on the basis of this classification, is shown in Table II below:

TABLE II
Per Cent of Books in Each Group of Third Classification

Group Ranking	Sophomore		Senior	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Group 1.	21.4	30.0	30.8	30.0
Group 2.	29.2	32.3	26.5	30.0
Group 3.	47.5	37.6	41.3	38.2
Group 4.	1.8	0.2	1.4	1.8

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Approximately 44 per cent of the books read were written by authors listed in the English teachers' published list. Almost all of these books are included in the first and second groups of the third classification. About 57 per cent of the books read are ranked as "very good" or as "having some merit." The percentage of "harmful" books is very small.

During the time which this survey covered the girls read one book per pupil more than the boys. In the case of the senior class the girls read 1.7 books per pupil more than the boys. The drop in the boys' reading from 2.4 books per pupil in the sophomore year to 1.2 books per pupil in the senior year is probably due to the increased participation in athletics and other extracurricular activities.

A comparison of the three classifications shows a slight increase in the pupils' abilities to choose good books independently. In the first classification 22.7 per cent of books read by the sophomores were definitely recommended by the book list whereas only 16.1 per cent of these books were read by the seniors. In the second classification the sophomores read 44.2 per cent and the seniors read 43.2 per cent of the books written by authors mentioned in the published book list. In the third classification, shown in Table II, the sophomores read 56.5 per cent and the seniors read 58.6 per cent of the books ranked as "very good" or "having some merit." The sophomores, therefore, chose

approximately 34 per cent of these good books without the aid of the book list and the seniors chose 43 per cent in the same manner. Assuming that these percentages represent the pupils' abilities to choose good reading material we may say that this ability for discrimination increased about 9 per cent during the three years of senior high school.

It is interesting to see that the percentage of books in the two upper groups of the third classification are almost the same for the sophomores as for the seniors. In these groups were 56.4 per cent of the books read by the sophomores and 58.6 per cent of those read by the seniors.

The ranking of the boys' reading in the third classification is almost the same for the sophomores as for the seniors. The girls' reading in this classification, however, shows a promising change. The books ranked as group 1, or "very good," increased from 21.4 per cent in the sophomore year to 30.8 per cent in the senior year. There was also a corresponding decrease of about 6 per cent in the books of group 3—those ranked as "worthless but harmless."

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The number of books read by the average high-school pupil seems rather small. The boys read less than the girls.

More than half of the books read by the pupils have some literary merit. The percentage of harmful books is very small. Approximately 40 per cent of the books have no particular merit. Most of these are mystery, detective, murder, and light love stories. There is a need here for more emphasis on discrimination.

There is, however, a small but definite increase from the sophomore year to the senior year in the pupils' power to choose good books. This increase is so small that it hardly justifies the three years of teaching which have produced it. Certainly it implies that, as taught at present, English courses are not functioning adequately in stimulating and guiding into worth-while channels the free reading interests of children.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles, and where possible, descriptions of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed

THE WESTCHESTER PROJECT

A research project into social conditions in a suburban community (Westchester County, New York, suburban to New York City) with special reference to recreation is being undertaken by the Council for Research in the Social Sciences at Columbia University in cooperation with the Westchester County Recreation Commission. The project is being directed by Dr. George A. Lundberg and participated in by Mr. Robert S. Lynd and other members of the staff and graduate students in sociology at Columbia University.

The purpose¹ is to conduct a basic study of present recreational habits and facilities in Westchester County and their potential adaptation and extension in the light of current social change in the county.

The study will be developed on two levels concurrently: (1) A compilation of existing knowledge designed to lay a broad, essential foundation for future study however extended or limited; (2) a few intensive projects on specific problems of selected areas.

1. *A preliminary rapid survey of the county as a whole to determine:*

A. Major social and economic factors, such as population concentration, location, and proportion of commuting population, demographic composition, economic stratification, and rates of change in recent decades.

B. Kind, location, and use of present public and commercial recreational facilities in the county by different groups.

¹The following statement was furnished through the courtesy of Dr. George A. Lundberg.

II *The commuting population*

(This will probably include case studies of two or more small sample groups of families on different income levels, in addition to other available materials)

- A Reasons for living in county rather than in other suburbs or city, including careful check of such factors as number of years married and age of children when first moved to county, recreational and social preferences of individual members of the family, etc
- B Length of residence in county and in particular part of county, frequency of moving, and direction of movement (*i.e.*, hierarchy of communities in point of popular desirability)
- C Pattern of daily living, winter and summer of the commuting family, including—
 - 1 Inventory of daily activities of family members, including all forms of recreation, in relation to.
 - a) Whether carried on in home, "neighborhood," county, or New York City,
 - b) Whether carried on as a family, or individually, or as members of nonfamily group,
 - c) Whether carried on in public, private, or commercial agencies,
 - d) Number and kinds of facilities for recreation possessed by the family, including automobiles, club membership, books, size of yard, playground equipment, etc.,
 - e) Variety of contacts with groups and agencies in county and New York City classified by whether each involves identical, overlapping, or different groups as regards income level, local geographical area limitations, etc.

III. *The noncommuting population*

(The extent to which material comparable to that in the preceding section will be gathered will depend upon the relative importance of the noncommuting population revealed under section I above)

IV *Westchester as a "community"*

- A. Factors—racial, economic, social, political, geographical, religious, recreational—making and unmaking its unity
- B Implications of the functional groups and cleavages in the county for "community" recreational planning for the county as a whole

A STUDY OF ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS IN TEXAS²

This is a part of the work of the University of Texas in research in the social sciences carried on under the auspices of the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Fund. At present, a

²By Annie Webb Blanton, associate professor of educational administration, specialist in rural education, University of Texas

study has been made of the pupils in eight one-teacher schools in three counties in different sections of the State. Each rural pupil has been matched with a child of the same age and sex in the city schools of the three county seats. All pupils, both rural and urban, have been given the following tests—group mental tests; standardized achievement tests in all of the subjects which they study; the Sims socio-economic test and a supplementary social test devised by the investigation; and a series of physical tests selected with the purpose of ascertaining the physical status of the pupils. In addition, the Binet-Simon intelligence tests have been given to approximately sixty per cent of the pupils. These are to serve as a check on the group mental tests. Materials have not yet been compiled.

THE CHINESE TONG: A STUDY OF INSTITUTIONS^a

The tongs or societies of the Chinese are studied with a view to throwing further light upon the nature of institutions—as, the relation of institution to social organization; their rise; the functions they perform; their modification, persistence, or decay. The study centers, therefore, about the general problem of the natural history of institutions. Quantitative and ecological approaches are employed in some phases of the study, but chief emphasis is put upon detailed case studies of tongs and of tong members. Interviews with tong members, translations of tong records, public documents, published articles about tongs—these are the main sources of information.

THE DAILY SCHEDULE METHOD

In "A Study of the Daily Schedules of Freshmen Women in a State Teachers College"^b the diary form of the daily schedule was used in collecting the data. Beginning at 6.00 a.m. each day the student recorded the activity in which she was engaged at that time. The next activity was recorded on the second line, and the record continued

^aA study being conducted at the University of Hawaii by Clarence E. Glick

^bBy Myrtle LeCompte, a graduate student at Teachers College of Columbia University

in this way during the twenty-four hours. For example:

- 6.00 Sleeping
- 7.00 Bathing and dressing
- 7.15 Talking with roommate
- 7.20 Reading the newspaper
- 7.45 Breakfast, etc.

These detailed schedules were kept for a week.

This simple form of record is more accurate than the classified form sometimes used because it requires no delayed memory or discriminating judgment on the part of the student.

As in the case of data collected by interviews, questionnaires, and certain types of tests, the reliability of this method depends largely on the extent to which the investigator is *en rapport* with the subjects and obtains their genuine coöperation.

A further discussion of this method may be found in "A Supplement to the Case Record," by Ruth Strang, *American Journal of Sociology*, Volume XXXIII (September, 1927), pages 262-268.

RESEARCH IN SOCIOLOGY IN HAWAII

Research in sociology at the University of Hawaii is a part of the general research program there in physical anthropology, psychology, and sociology financed by the Rockefeller Foundation. Hawaii is a splendid locus for studies in the field of racial and cultural relations. Dr. Romanzo Adams has studied chiefly marriage, intermarriage, and the family in Hawaii. Mr. A. W. Lind has completed his work, *Racial Invasion in Hawaii*, an ecological study in economic and racial succession and invasion. Dr. E. B. Reuter and Miss Doris Lorden have investigated the status of the Chinese-Hawaiian hybrid. Mr. C. E. Glick's research is concerned with the Chinese tongs. Mr. J. Masuoka and Miss Margaret Lam have been working on social distance of Japanese in Hawaii and on race attitudes of Chinese-Hawaiians, respectively.⁵

⁵Statement furnished through the courtesy of Clarence E. Glick

BOOK REVIEWS

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY *this month continues its new policy of brief, expository book reviews. All books received are sent to experts in their fields. Only such books are reviewed as are considered to make some contribution to their fields.*

The Austrian Educational Institutes, by BERYL PARKER.
Vienna: Austrian Federal Publisher for Education,
Science, and Art, 1931, 184 pages.

Dr. Parker is already known to students of comparative education as a team mate of Dr. Alexander in their collaborative study *The New Education in the German Republic*. In her new book Miss Parker appears as a full-fledged author in her own right. Cramped into less than two hundred pages, her story of the rise and struggles of the Austrian *Bundeszweckschulen* is complete and thorough. Not only has she written a scholarly book, but she has graced it with an interesting and lively style. To make her job complete, moreover, she has thrown in scores of splendid illustrations.

Modern Methods in High School Teaching, by HARL R. DOUGLASS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1926, 544 pages

"The task of this book will be a discussion of the technique of adjusting education to the needs of adolescents, in the light of modern knowledge as to the purposes of secondary education," reports the author in the preface. He has held consistently to his task and has handled the subject with great skill. This volume is justly finding wide acceptance in training schools and reading circles. Some of the most interesting chapters of the book are: Socialized Class Procedure, Supervising Pupil Study, Visual Instructions, and Quizzes, Examinations, and Marking.

English for American High Schools, by WALTER BARNES
New York: Rand, McNally and Company, 1931,
xvi+630 pages.

Here is a new type of book that is a text for high-school students and in which the author conceives language as a social activity intimately connected with other social activities. Moreover, this is not merely a theoretical conception of the author but each detail of the book's construction conforms to the author's conception. This may be noted from the following topics comprising part one of the text:

conversation, story-telling, the friendly letter, discussion, explanation, the business letter, argument, speech making, minor types of language activity, language enterprises and projects.

Objective Tests on "Modern Methods in High School Teaching," by HARL R. DOUGLASS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931, 30 pages.

This is an examination consisting of two forms covering the materials in *Modern Methods in High School Teaching* by the same author. Each form has two parts as follows: part one, 50 true-false exercises, 15 multiple-choice exercises, 15 enumeration exercises; part two, 60 true-false exercises, 15 multiple-choice exercises, and 15 enumeration exercises. No standards or norms are given.

Social Science Lessons for Junior Workers, by CLARENCE P. DAVEY and JAMES CAMERON. New York: The Century Company, 1930, 94 pages.

This little book is a students' manual in which forty lessons are outlined on: (1) industrial problems and relationships, (2) civic problems and relationships, and (3) economic problems and relationships. In the words of the authors, "The material presented is intended to acquaint pupils with existing conditions, ideals, and goals in community, State, and national life, to give serious attention to the developments of right social attitudes; and to get the pupils to think for themselves."

Supervising Extra-Curricular Activities, by PAUL W. TERRY. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1930, 417 pages.

This volume is divided into four parts as follows: Part One, Historical and Theoretical Backgrounds; Part Two, Student Participation in the Government of the School, Part Three, Important Types of Student Organizations; Part Four, Problems of Organization and Supervision. Undoubtedly, part one carries the most elaborate historical and theoretical statement of the background of social cooperation available in any of the publications dealing with extracurricular activities.

Some Factors in the Undergraduate Careers of Young College Students, by H. A. GRAY. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930, 66 pages.

Through the analysis of the records of one hundred twenty-six boys at Columbia and of twenty-eight girls at Barnard, all of whom had entered college under sixteen years of age, the author has attempted to isolate the factors most influential in their undergraduate achieve-

ments and experiences. His objectives are: (1) "to test the necessity for, and the desirability of minimum age requirements for college entrance," and (2) "to set up admission criteria . . . which will better enable college officers to decide the question of admission of the individual applicants whose chronological age is obviously less than that of his prospective classmates."

Education on the Air, Second Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Edited by JOSEPHINE H. MAC-LATCHY. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1931, 286 pages.

This book is composed of a series of reports given at the meeting held in Columbus, Ohio, last summer. The contents of the book are grouped around seven topics. (1) national aspects of education by radio, (2) organization of radio education; (3) activities of college stations, (4) radio in the schoolroom, (5) technical aspects of radio; (6) investigation in radio education; and (7) presenting chain programs. One's interest will determine what section or sections will be read. Each one is valuable according to the viewpoint of the reader. The volume is a valuable addition to any professional library on education.

Symposium on Physical Education and Health, compiled and edited by JAY B. NASH. New York: New York University Press Book Store, 1930, 320 pages.

A distinct service is being rendered to education in the series of publications sponsored by Professor Jay B. Nash, head of the department of physical and health education of the New York University School of Education. The first of these books is a symposium presenting the deeper meanings of the value in the activities of the curricula of the department. The general theme of this symposium is the "oneness of mind and body" and the purpose is to show that mental and physical activities are inseparable.

Towards Better Education, by DAVID SNEDDEN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, vii+427 pages.

Perhaps no other writer on educational problems has been more prolific in output than the author of *Towards Better Education* and this is his *magnus opus* both in the physical sense, for he has contributed more than 400 pages, and in the sense of a contribution to present-day educational discussion. What, then, is this *magnus opus*? It is a critical analysis of the writings of practically all of the educational philosophers of the present generation. The author has selected sixteen groups of educational problems, and in the center of present discussion, has sought to show that educational writers have floundered in confusion and in "rank romanticism" because of failure to distinguish between educational purposes and educational methods.

Problems in Teacher Training, Volume VI, compiled and edited by AMBROSE L. SUHRIE. New York: New York University Press Book Store, 1931, 399 pages.

This volume contains the proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Eastern-States Association of Professional Schools for Teachers held in April 1931. It is a complete and detailed "story" of the meeting—of the administrative and financial affairs of the organization, of the reports of officers; and of the papers read and addresses made during the meeting.

The major topics of the conference were: the standards of the American Association of Teachers Colleges; construction and revision of the curriculum in professional schools for teachers; and innovations in teacher-training programs.

Fads and Fallacies of Present Day Education, by H. E. BUCHOLTZ. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 200 pages.

For the want of a name the above book is given the title of *Fads and Fallacies of Present Day Education*. It might more appropriately have been called a satire on certain aspects of American educational practice. The author of the volume has, for years, been a well-known contributor to the *Baltimore Sun*. To those who wish to see certain present-day tendencies of education in the light of a critically minded layman will enjoy the few hours needed to read the volume.

Illiteracy in the United States, by SANFORD WINSTON. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1930, 168 pages.

This study, based upon the census data of the past fifty years, traces the trend of illiteracy in the United States over the past half a century and presents the problem of illiteracy as it exists in this country at the present time. In undertaking this investigation the author had in mind two major objectives. first, "to analyze the trend of illiteracy in the United States and its present relation to sex, age, urban and rural environment, race and nationality, and school systems", secondly, "to emphasize the fact that illiteracy, as a measure of educational status, achieves importance as it affects other social phenomena." In connection with the latter objective, Winston has attempted to determine quantitatively the relationship of illiteracy to the selected factors of birth rate, infant mortality, early age of marriage, size of family, mobility, suicide, and urbanization.

Child Labor Legislation in New York, by MARY CALLCOTT. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 267 pages.

Beginning with a brief survey of efforts to enact and enforce child-labor legislation up to the year 1905, the author proceeds to trace in detail the development of child labor laws in the State of New York over the past quarter of a century and to analyze the methods used to administer them. The laws passed, together with the bills that have failed, are grouped according to their subject matter and treated historically. The description of the long struggle between the forces that have worked for better protective legislation and those which have sought to retard progress in this field shows how the former, with an inestimable amount of effort and patience, have slowly succeeded in placing New York in a position of leadership with regard to standards of child-labor legislation.

Recent Trends in American Housing, by EDITH ELMER WOOD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 317 pages.

This volume, from the pen of an experienced student, who has for many years been engaged in a first-hand study of housing conditions and developments in this country and in many foreign countries, comes as a sequel to an earlier volume, *The Housing of the Unskilled Wage Earner*, published by the author in 1919. In her first book the author traced the history of housing in the United States, both as to conditions and attempted remedies, prior to the World War. The present volume analyzes the problems connected with securing the minimum standards of housing for the two thirds of our population who cannot pay a rental or purchase price high enough to produce a commercial profit on a new dwelling, satisfactory to the commercial builder, and describes the characteristic trends and tendencies in American housing during the past fourteen years.

Societal Evolution, by A. G. KELLER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, revised edition, 419 pages.

The *Societal Evolution* of William Graham Sumner as expounded by Professor A. G. Keller reappears in new and revised form after six printings in the past sixteen years to its credit. The main change in this already familiar work is the addition of considerable illustrative material drawn from contemporary rather than primitive life. No other American scholar is so well fitted to write a book either about or for William Graham Sumner.

Because I Stutter, By WENDELL JOHNSON. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930, 127 pages.

The autobiography of a stutterer. An interesting document reflecting the effect of speech defect upon the attitudes and personality of a speech defective, and the problems of adjustment it forced him to face. Good case material for teaching.

Measurement of Nervous Habits, by WILLARD OLSON.
Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1929,
97 pages.

The results of an investigation in the measurement of nervous habits or tics in children. The relation of nervous habits to age, sex, and a variety of other factors is traced through a group of children ranging from two to fifteen years. Highly suggestive as to methods of objective observation and analysis of complex behavior entities.

Problems of Preschool Children, by MARIE TILSON. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929, 90 pages.

An inventory of the problems of behavior presented by 225 American-born children between the ages of one and five years referred to seven habit clinics—a study of the relationship of types of problems to chronological and mental age; nationality, education, religion, and occupation of parents; number of children in the family, and position of the problem child in the family.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Administration of an Elementary School Subject, by Gist. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons

America's Story as Told in Postage Stamps, by Allen. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

American Planes and Standards of Living, by Eliot. Boston: Ginn and Company

American Public Mind, by Odegard. New York: Columbia University Press.

Audit of America, by Hunt. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Born a Jew, by Bogen. New York: The Macmillan Company

Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Ninth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association.

By Words of Mouth, by Boldyreff. Boston: Richard G. Badger.

China and Japan in Our Museums, by March. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press

Coleccion Socrates, by Agustin Venturino. Volumes III, V, VI, and VII. Barcelona, Spain: Editorial Cervantes

Comenius, by Keatinge. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Commonwealth Fund Annual Report, 1930. New York: Commonwealth Fund.

Communist and Coöperative Colonies, by Gide. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

Community Organization, by Steiner. New York: The Century Company.

- Cultural Education and Common Sense*, by Snedden. New York. The Macmillan Company.
- Culture and Education in America*, by Rugg. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.
- Drift of Civilization*, by Howe, et al. New York. Simon and Schuster.
- Economic Behavior*, by Atkins, et al. Volumes I and II. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin*, by Woody. New York. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Educational Works of Thomas Jefferson*, by Honeywell. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College*, by Kandel. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Efficiency in Vocational Education*, by Wright and Allen. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- English Education, 1789-1902*, by Adamson. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- English Tradition of Education*, by Norwood. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company.
- Essays on Comparative Education*, by Kandel. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Essays on Research in the Social Sciences*, by Swann, et al. Washington, D. C.: Brookings Institute.
- Ethnic Survey of Woonsocket, Rhode Island*, by Wessel. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Everyman's Book of Flying*, by Kneen. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.
- Evolution of Culture*, by Lippert. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Evolution of Public Education in a New Jersey School District*, by Foster. Philadelphia: W. F. Humphrey Press.
- Fads and Fallacies in Present Day Education*, by Buchholz. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Folk Culture on St. Helena Island*, by Johnson. Chapel Hill, N. C.: The University of North Carolina Press.
- Growth of Freedom in Education*, by McAllister. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Henry Barnard on Education*, by Brubacher, editor. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Historical Evolution of Modern Nationalism*, by Hayes. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Humanism as a Way of Life*, by Frederick. New York: Business Bourse.
- Inglis Lecture, 1931*, by Dewey. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Intelligence in Politics*, by Ward. Chapel Hill, N. C.: The University of North Carolina Press.

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- International Understanding*, by Harley. Stanford University, Cal.: Stanford University Press.
- Living in the Twentieth Century*, by Barnes. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company.
- Love Children*, by deFord. New York: Dial Press.
- Making Fascists*, by Harper. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Making of Citizens*, by Merriam. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Making of Man*, edited by Calverton. New York: Modern Library, Inc.
- Meaning of Culture*, by Powys. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc.
- Methods and Statistics of Scientific Research*, by Spahr and Swenson. New York: Harper and Brothers.
- Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, by Cole. New York: D. Appleton and Company.
- Mothers, The*, by Briffault. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Mysterious Universe*, by Jean. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Mysticism and Logic*, by Russell. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc.
- New Education in Austria*, by Dottrens. New York: The John Day Company.
- New Education in Europe*, by Roman. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company.
- New Schools for Young India*, by McKee. Chapel Hill, N. C.: The University of North Carolina Press.
- New Views of Evolution*, by Conger. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- New Worlds of Physical Discovery*, by Darrow. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company.
- Origin and History of Politics*, by MacLeod. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Our Business Civilization*, by Adams. New York: Albert and Charles Boni.
- Ourselves and the World*, by Lumley and Bode. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Pan-Sovietism*, by Hopper. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Pioneers of Women's Education*, by Goodsell. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Psychology and Religious Experience*, by Halliday. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Publication of American Sociological Society*, May, 1931. Chicago: American Sociological Society.
- Race and Population Problems*, by Duncan. New York: Longmans, Green and Company.
- Readings in Sociology*, by Wallis and Willey. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

- Recent Trends in American Housing*, by Wood. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Renewal of Culture*, by Ringbom. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Restriction of Output Among Unorganized Workers*, by Mathewson. New York: Viking Press
- School Betterment Studies*, Volumes I and II. Pittsburgh: Henry C. Frick Educational Commission
- Science of Biology*, by Scott. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company
- Set of Five Studies*. Albany. Crime Commission of New York State
- Sixth Yearbook, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Social Attitudes*, edited by Young. New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Social Behavior of Insects*, by Imms. New York: Dial Press
- Social Organization*, by Bushee New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Social Process in Original Groups*, by Coyle. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc.
- Social Psychology*, by Folsom New York: Harper and Brothers.
- Social Research*, by Lundberg New York: Longmans, Green and Company.
- Social Work Administration*, by Street. New York: Harper and Brothers
- Social Work of the Churches*, by Johnson. New York: Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America.
- Sociology of City Life*, by Carpenter. New York: Longmans, Green and Company
- Some Folks Won't Work*, by Calkins New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.
- Some Social Aspects of Mental Hygiene*, edited by Williams Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
- Story of the Weather*, by Van Cleaf New York: The Century Company
- Supervision of the Elementary Schools*, by Stone. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Technique of Controversy*, by Bogoslovsky. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.
- Ten Years of World Cooperation*, Secretariat of the League of Nations Boston: World Peace Foundation
- Tests and Challenges in Sociology*, by Ross. New York: The Century Company
- Thomas Jefferson and Education in a Republic*, edited by Arrowood New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc
- Tortured China*, by Abend New York: Ives Washburn.
- Towards Better Education*, by Snedden. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University

Village and Country Neighborhoods, by Terpenning. New York: The Century Company.

Workbook in Local, State and National Government, by Capen. New York: American Book Company.

Workbook in Sociology, by Schettler and Simpson. New York: American Book Company.

Workmen's Compensation, by Hulvey and Wandel. New York: The Century Company

Your Nose, Ears and Throat, by Oaks and Merrill. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Dr. Mary Emma Woolley, president of Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts, has been appointed by President Hoover as a member of the American delegation to the General Disarmament Conference of the League of Nations, which convened in Geneva on February 2.

Mr. Ben M. Cherrington, professor of international relations and executive secretary of the Foundation for the Advancement of the Social Sciences of the University of Denver, has been sent to Europe by the university to study the international situation at first hand. After a brief visit to Moscow and other capitals he attended the opening of the Disarmament Conference at Geneva. On his return early in March he will lecture in the East.

Herman J. Magee, head of the teacher-training division of the New York State Education Department, died on December 26, at the age of thirty-seven years.

The Omaha Council of Social Agencies through its committee on recreation has recently closed a community-wide recreation institute. This was conducted by Mr. J. K. Batchelor, field representative of the National Recreation Association. The chairman of the committee is Dr. T. Earl Sullenger, professor of sociology in the Municipal University of Omaha. The committee was not content with conducting merely a successful institute, but organized a team of volunteer leaders who took the course to conduct free recreational programs in various sections of the city throughout the winter months. Public buildings are being utilized for this enterprise. This program is in cooperation with the city-wide endeavor to raise the morale of the financially depressed during this economic crisis.

Dr. and Mrs. Harold Rugg will spend the next six months conducting studies of cultural changes in China. These studies are the first of a series to be carried on in collaboration with associates in Nankai University in Tientsin under the auspices of the Institute of Pacific Relations. Dr. Rugg will also collaborate with the Japanese and Chinese leaders in organizing branches of the New Education Fellowship. Returning through Siberia and eastern Europe, Dr. and Mrs. Rugg will take part in the sixth World Conference on the New Education at Nice, in August 1932. They plan to return to the United States in September.

The Inglis Lecture of the Harvard Graduate School of Education was delivered by Dr. William Setchell Learned of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching on January 13. The title of the address was Realism in American Education. The Inglis Lectureship on Secondary Education was established by the Harvard Graduate School of Education in honor of the late Professor Alexander Inglis, a member of the faculty of the school, who at the time of his

death in 1924 had become a leading scholar and writer in the field of secondary education

The World Congress on Recreation

The first world congress on recreation will be held in Los Angeles from July 23 to 29, just prior to the Olympic games. The congress will be held under the auspices of the National Recreation Association.

Dr Augustus O. Thomas, president of the World Federation of Education Associations since its organization in 1923 to the present year, has now accepted the position of secretary-general with headquarters in Washington, D. C.

Miss Annabelle Bergman who is completing her work for the master's degree in educational sociology and music education in New York University is scheduled to teach a course in City College in the Queensborough division during this semester.

Dr Paul Lomax, head of the department of commercial education, spent three weeks in December giving lectures before various teachers' associations in California and other Western States.

Dr Otto Harris of the geography department of Washington Square College of New York University has organized a most interesting educational tour in which he and his party will visit many centers of geographical and historical interest in Europe during the coming summer.

Dr. L. L. Bernard, director of the Brown School of Social Work of Washington University, was elected president of the American Sociological Society at the recent meeting in Washington.

Mr S O Rorem who has recently completed the work on his doctorate in the New York University School of Education has been appointed assistant superintendent of schools at Port Chester, New York, his work began February first

The Editor of THE JOURNAL Again Honored

Dr. E. George Payne, head of the department of educational sociology and Assistant Dean of the New York University School of Education, was elected a Fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at the December meeting of the Council in Washington.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Mr Francis J. Brown received his A.B. from the University of Iowa in 1918 and his A.M. from Teachers College of Columbia University in 1923. He was principal of the high school in Emmett, Idaho, from 1919 to 1920, superintendent of schools from 1920 to 1922, instructor in education at the University of Rochester from 1923 to 1926, and assistant professor of education and associate director of extension at the University of Rochester from 1926 to 1930. At present Mr Brown is instructor in education at New York University School of Education. He is a member of the Department of Superintendence, American Association of University Professors, American Sociological Association, Kappa Phi Kappa, and Phi Delta Kappa. He is the author of *Objective Measurement of Character, an Experimental Study*, *The Value of Incentives in Education*, *The Free Time Reading Interests of High School Students*, and *An Evaluation of Extra-mural Courses*.

Mr. Cain is completing his Sc.B. requirements and doing work towards his A.M. degree at New York University School of Education. He has been associated for several years with the maintenance department of the Board of Education of South Orange and Maplewood, New Jersey.

Mr. Walter E. Hammond is superintendent of schools at Keene, New Hampshire. He attended Worcester Polytechnic Institute from 1909 to 1910 and Pennsylvania State College from 1911 to 1912. Mr Hammond received his A.A. degree from Harvard in 1927 and Ed.M. from Boston University in 1929. He studied for the doctorate at Rutgers University. Mr Hammond has had vast teaching experience, having taught all grades, rural schools, and city high schools.

Dr. Earl E. Muntz, professor of economics in the School of Commerce of New York University, received his A.B. degree from Baldwin College and his A.M. and Ph.D. degrees from Yale University with graduate specialization in sociology and economics. Dr. Muntz was professor of sociology in Hobart College from 1921 to 1922, instructor in economics and social institutions in Princeton University from 1922 to 1925, and for the last six years has been connected with New York University. Aside from being professor of economics in the School of Commerce, Dr. Muntz is in charge of all the sociology offered in that school. Dr. Muntz is the author of *Race Contact* and various articles. At present, he is engaged in a survey of hospital facilities and costs in New York City.

Mr Archie M. Palmer is a graduate of Cornell University to which he returned in 1920 after three years in regular army service to become secretary of the College of Arts and Sciences. He has his A.M. degree from Columbia University and has practically completed the requirements for his doctorate in the field of higher education. He was

assistant director of the Institute of International Education from 1927 to 1929. Since August 1929 he has been associate secretary of the Association of American Colleges and in collaboration with Dr. Robert L. Kelly has been conducting the research and advisory activities of that organization.

Dr. David Snedden is professor of education in Teachers College of Columbia University. Professor Snedden received his bachelor's degree from Leland Stanford Junior and his A.M. and Ph.D. degrees from Columbia. He has had wide experience as teacher, principal, and administrator of schools in California and Massachusetts. He has been in his present position since 1916. He is widely known as a lecturer and author on education. He has made notable contributions to the literature of vocational and secondary education and he has been one of the early pioneers in educational sociology, in which field he has written a number of books.

Mrs. Florence Zeleny received her A.B. from the University of Michigan and her A.M. is to be completed at the University of Minnesota in March. In the past she has held the following positions: instructor of English, Ferris Institute, Big Rapids, Michigan; county normal supervisor, Port Huron, Michigan; instructor for three summer sessions at the Ypsilanti State Teachers College, and first-grade teacher at Ann Arbor, Michigan. At present, Mrs. Zeleny is instructor in education (reading and speech) at the State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota. Mrs. Zeleny's interest in sociology has been due to the fact that her husband, Dr. L. D. Zeleny, is professor of sociology at the State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota.

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EDITORIAL

The measure of adult maturity is the success with which the individual adjusts himself to the demands of family life and the vocational world. Until within our own generation, schooling has helped the individual little if at all in making either of these adjustments. Consequently numberless men and women have found themselves adrift in life—restless and dissatisfied, bewildered, or resentful. Adult education has arisen to meet this adult need of reorientation to life.

The vocational world being competitive, the need of adult education was first and most sharply felt as a means to more satisfactory vocational adjustment. The mass of adult education today is more or less vocational in nature. With the application of modern psychiatry to the personnel problems of industry we are coming to realize, however, that vocational maladjustments involve more than a lack of knowledge and skill, are rooted in the emotional immaturity of the individual, lie too deep to be reached by reeducational measures. The only hopeful attack on the problems of adult maladjustment lies in making childhood experiences more satisfying and constructive through education for parenthood. As we have come to a realization of this fact, parent-education programs have become a major part of the adult-education movement.

While institutes for child development have been doing research into the physical and mental growth of children, parent-teacher associations and child-study groups have been attempting to translate to parents the implications of these facts for successful parenthood. The National Council for Parent Education, attempting to correlate the many research and study groups throughout the country, and to train leaders for study groups, has become perhaps one of the most important factors in adult education.

There has been a flood of literature in the field. A recent book, *Children and Their Parents*, by Dr. Maud Watson, director of the Children's Center of Detroit, stands out, however, head and shoulders above the rest of this literature. Its skillful analysis of the interacting emotional attitudes that constitute family life, of the relationship of emotional maturity to marital adjustment, and of the influence of the attitudes and problems of parents upon the developing personality of the child, at once defines the problem of parent education and throws into relief the social implications of its program. The reader who, upon turning the last pages of this journal, wishes a more comprehensive picture of this fundamental area of adult education can do no better than turn to Dr. Watson's book

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

BASIC PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING ADULT EDUCATION

FRANCIS J. BROWN

RESUME OF HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Adult education is as old as civilization itself. Primitive peoples continued to learn the skills of war and of the hunt; the students of Plato and Aristotle were grown men, the Roman Forum was the seat of learning for old as well as young; the church taught its novitiates regardless of age; the guild schools trained boys and men in the arts of the trades. It was only when the artificial agency of society—the school—became crystallized and its subject matter formalized that education was conceived of as a process beginning at the age of six and ending at adolescence. This limited period of learning became increasingly ingrained in our educational philosophy. The school gradually expanded its program downward to include the kindergarten and the nursery school, and upward through the high school, college, and university, but its units became more fixed: an elementary-school period of eight years, a high school of four, and a university course of another four. Even with the recent breaking down of these sharp divisions within the total span, school entrance is still frequently thought of as the beginning of the educational process and its closing symbolized by graduation.

As early as 1890, occasional protests were heard against limiting the opportunity of formal education to children.

Think of it! Twenty-eight hundred millions of capital invested in education and none of it available to any one after the limits of youth are past. Much of it wasted in untimely efforts to force the minds of children against the unyielding resistances of immaturity. None of it, or anything else, applied to keeping up the intellectual momentum of later years.¹

¹J. K. Hart, *Adult Education* (New York: The Crowell Publishing Company, 1927), p. 179. Quotation from *Lippincott's Magazine*, October 1890.

Even as early as the beginning of the nineteenth century, sporadic efforts to develop education outside the formal agency of the school began. The General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen was organized in New York City in 1790, and in 1820 opened a library of 4,000 volumes. At its dedication, one Thomas Mercein expressed the educational hopes of its founders:

The general diffusion of light, both intellectual and moral, until its beams fall on every class of society, and cheer the retreat and asylum of the humble and obscure, shall prove an object of ardent devotion to the patriot, the philanthropist, and the Christian. As population increases and spreads, from the ocean to the mountains, and from the Great Lakes to the wilds of the Mississippi, let the march of education, literature, and science keep pace with the augmentation, adding new acquisitions to the great mass of general information.²

A second movement which started in this country about the same time as the Mechanics Institute was the Lyceum. Its high purpose was stated in an "Address to the People of the State of South Carolina" dated 1834.

We may remark of Socrates, and of all the schools of ancient philosophy, that . . . they produced no sensible effects on the great body of the people. . . . The reason was that the schemes of ancient philosophy did not comprehend the general instruction of the people, embracing both sexes, and all ages and conditions . . . It is truly a republican institution.³

From these early beginnings, both the Institute and, even more, the Lyceum came to play an important part in the enlightenment of the people. Largely within the last quarter of a century the Chautauqua movement, correspondence schools, the development of public libraries, museums, the radio, club organizations of every description, labor organizations, tax-supported evening schools and classes, university extension, and a host of other agencies have reinstated education beyond the limits of the period of formal learning. It is extremely interesting to note that the origin of the movement lies outside the formal agency of the school, and that its incorporation into the

²*Ibid.*, p. 171.

³*Ibid.*, p. 172.

program of popular education has come only after it had developed considerable significance outside the sacred precincts of the school and college.

The new term "adult education" came into popular usage immediately following the startling revelations of illiteracy in the drafted contingent of the World War. In many respects the term defies definition. Many individuals assert that at the present time, at least, the movement ought not to be crystallized by defining it. The American Association of Adult Education has consistently refrained from committing itself to an inclusive or exclusive definition, believing that no one can say what the term adult education will eventually mean in the United States.⁴

Even though an exact and delimitive definition at the present time is difficult, and perhaps unwise, certain characteristics of its program can be established. They are stated as "any educational activity in which the individual voluntarily enrolls, does not consider such effort his major activity, is of post-compulsory age, enters upon a course of study, reading, or discussion that has continuity and leads to some definite objective and which can be reported or endorsed by some reputable and recognized agency"⁵ A similar statement of characteristics is made by Dr. L. R. Alderman, Specialist in Adult Education, Office of Education. He states:

The outstanding characteristics of formal adult education are

- 1 The work must be voluntary.
- 2 It must be taken during leisure time
3. It must be somewhat continuous and consecutive⁶

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES UPON WHICH A PROGRAM OF ADULT EDUCATION MUST REST

Such a program of adult education as that described above rests upon several fundamental principles, the rec-

⁴American Association for Adult Education, "Annual Report of the Director in behalf of the Executive Board, 1929-1930" *Journal of Adult Education*, 11 (June 1930), pp 330-355

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 480

⁶L. R. Alderman, *Adult Education Activities* (Washington, D. C. United States Bureau of Education, 1929), Bulletin 23, 18 pages

ognition of which has given enormous impetus to its development, both outside the formal agencies of the school and within them.

I The period of learning, formerly conceived to end at the close of the period of formal schooling, continues without significant abatement throughout life, at least to the period of senescence.

Opinion of educators, experimentation on animal learning, and the extremely significant experiments on adult learning by Edward L. Thorndike and others all bear out this principle. Detailed discussion of these data is omitted here as they are summarized by Dr. Ellis in the following article in this issue.

II. Individuals differ in general ability, specific aptitudes, and interests.

Although tacitly assumed, experimental work in mental and educational measurements, aptitude tests, and interest analyses have demonstrated extremes in individual differences only partially recognized before. Such differences tend to increase rather than decrease with advancing years, thereby demanding a widely diversified program of education for adults.

III. The increasing complexity and subdivision of labor has decreased the demand for specific skills through the formal agencies of education.

An executive in a large industrial organization stated in a recent public address that the necessary skill for fully sixty per cent of the positions in his organization could be mastered in three days, and ninety per cent within three weeks. Specialization of industry has so simplified the requisite skill for the individual, that the educational emphasis has, to some degree, and will increasingly shift from training in specific skills to an increased emphasis upon the understanding of fundamental processes.

IV. The rapid changes within all fields of human endeavor make reeducation or continuous education essential. Changes within industry, both in organization and in the

application of improved machinery, is proceeding at a pace never before imagined. Whole industries are suddenly supplanted or forced into complete reorganization by the discovery of more effective raw materials or processes of manufacture. Literally, millions of men and women are thereby thrown out of employment annually. It is probably conservative to state that twenty-five per cent of our entire population is engaged in industries which did not exist twenty-five years ago. The developments resulting from scientific research and the application of new techniques within the professions make continually new demands upon their members. A practising physician stated that little of what he studied in medical school twenty years ago, except the basic elements of physiology and anatomy, is of value to him today. The same is true, perhaps to a lesser degree, of the engineer, the teacher, the lawyer, and the clergyman.

These changes create a twofold educational problem: the reeducation of those who must seek new positions, often in different basic industries, and the continual education of those who must keep pace with these rapid changes and developments resulting from experimentation and research. Adult education is one attempt to meet these needs.

V. Unemployment and shorter working hours, combined with the monotony for the worker of single operations in industry, has increased the demand for cultural interests, fundamentally avocational in character.

This principle needs no elaboration. The facts are known to all and its expression through the avalanche of reading material that pours annually from the press and the enormous development of commercialized amusement is apparent on every hand.

Dr. Albert Mansbridge, chairman, British Institute of Adult Education, emphasizes the significance of this principle as follows.

A great opportunity is unfolded by the greater allowance of leisure to many workers. In recent memory, a twelve-hour

day for workmen has become in many places an eight-hour day. It may even become less. Thus the man at uncongenial work, as so many must be, in an age of machines and mass production, is provided with an opportunity in out-of-work hours to make his own contribution to the rhythm of life, by creating sounds, molding material, arranging colors, or developing understanding, just as his heart dictates. The test of an educated man is most rightly applied in that time which he calls his own, when the only rule he acknowledges is the unalterable law of life.⁷

Dr. A. Caswell Ellis, director of Cleveland College of Western Reserve University, concluded his address before the National University Extension Association with this significant statement:

We are led to the inevitable conclusion that we must either resign ourselves to the enjoyment of a smaller and smaller portion of the culture of the race, and to the danger of our vocational equipment's becoming hopelessly antiquated in a few years, or we must all join the ever increasing throng who are going year after year to the after-work-hour classes for adults in order to enrich their culture and to refresh and broaden their vocational knowledge.

The nature of man and the requirements of civilization demand a system of adult education fully as complete as in our present system of schools for the young.⁸

VI. The popularization through press, lecture, and radio of semi- and even pseudoscientific information, together with their commercialization, places a serious responsibility upon education to present the fundamental facts of human knowledge in so far as they are known.

We are a nation of fads and fancies. Effective means of advertising and communication carry them to every corner of the land. We spend millions on proprietary drugs. Doctors announce the food value of liver, and calves liver jumps to a dollar a pound overnight. Mental hygiene lays the beginnings of a scientific approach to the understanding of human problems, and in a few years psychoanalysis has become a fetish, with apparently little recognition of the dangers that lurk in the counseling rooms

⁷Quoted in the Department of Superintendence, *Seventh Yearbook* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1929), p. 477.

⁸Proceedings of the National University Extension Association, 1924, p. 110.

of thousands who are now willing, for profit, to advise the individual on his repressions, inhibitions, and psycho-neuroses.

VII. The increased emphasis upon democracy in education has lengthened the span of tax-supported education.

Free elementary schools have since the middle of the nineteenth century been accepted as the right of every child. The Kalamazoo Case in 1872 legalized the establishment of the high school as a part of the free school system. The development of the State university, given impetus by the Morrill Act of 1862, extended it four or six years further. Classes in literacy gave the privilege of free education to the foreign born of whatever age. Today this broadened conception of democracy demands the expansion of educational opportunity not only to "all the children of all the people," but also to "all the people."

Adult education originally began primarily on a self-supporting basis. It has, however, become increasingly less so as the Federal Government, State governments, and local school districts, as well as private endowments, have given continually larger sums to its support. The further expansion of the educational program to meet the needs for more specialized courses and for more advanced study will make greater rather than less demand upon tax funds

In so far as State universities are concerned, probably the large expenditures of money taken from the pockets of the taxpayers of the State can be justified only by rendering service to the whole people.⁹

This emphasis upon democracy has also exerted an influence from another angle, that is, the need of an educated citizenry. This need has been heralded from press, forum, and pulpit. It is specifically stated in its relation to adult education in the report of the Committee on Adult Education of the Department of Superintendence

The very foundation of our Government rests upon enlightened public opinion. This necessitates an intelligent, alert, thinking body of citizens. It means an intelligent interest and

⁹Thomas H. Shelby, *General University Extension* (Washington, D. C.: United States Bureau of Education, 1926), Bulletin 5, p. 2.

participation in public affairs. This interest and this participation are not guaranteed by the possession of a diploma from high school or even from college. The essence of the problem is continuing education¹⁰

VIII. Organized groups are turning with increasing insistence to educational agencies for assistance and cooperation in meeting their educational needs.

In a recent address before the Eastern Conference for Extension Education, Mr. Spencer Miller, Jr., director of the Workers Education Bureau, stated that labor was asking three things of adult education: recognition of labor unions as a focal point for the conduct of courses, responsiveness to their educational needs, and the establishment of cooperative relationship through joint committees of university extension and labor organizations. Retail stores, industrial and commercial establishments are requesting courses for their employees. Grange organizations and cooperative leagues are seeking both agricultural and cultural programs. Women's clubs, social organizations, and community groups are turning to organized educational agencies. In this development it is essential that no interest or group of interests shall control course offerings or dictate policies.

This new adult education is one of the youngest members of the family of educational enterprises. This stripling, scarce thirty years old, has grown to manhood almost overnight and bids fair to become the most important single agent in the educational development of the next quarter century. If it is a bit uncertain in its step, sometimes awkward in its expression, and indefinite and indecisive in its thinking, it may perhaps be forgiven it as the characteristics of youth. Heterogeneous still in character, and multifarious in its organization, it nevertheless rests upon sound psychological, economic, and sociological principles which have not only given it impetus, but entirely justify the increasing expenditure of money and effort in carrying forward its program—the enrichment of community life.

¹⁰Department of Superintendence Seventh Yearbook, p. 476

NEW AIMS FOR OUR NEW ADULT EDUCATION

A CASWELL ELLIS

A philosophy of adult education should marshal the significant facts and draw from these rational conclusions as to the aims, principles, values, and relations of adult education. The significant facts that must determine our philosophy of adult education are: first, the nature of the adults to be educated; and, second, the nature of the environment—physical, human, institutional, and spiritual—to which this education must help adults to adjust

What, then, are the facts about the adult's nature that are significant in determining valid aims, principles, and relations in adult education?

Right at the start, scientific observations force us to break with the traditional conceptions that "you can't teach an old dog new tricks," and that man has only one mental youth, one mental middle age, and a mental old age, just as he has one physical youth, one physical middle age, and a physical old age.

Dr E. L. Thorndike and a group of colleagues have recently tested by carefully checked experiments the relative learning capacities of children and adults. He took groups at five-year intervals in age, that is, a group at fifteen years of age, one at twenty, and so on, up to a group at forty-five years of age. These groups were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, stenography, typewriting, Esperanto, and to write with the left hand. Contrary to traditional belief, he found that adults at every age tested learned all of the above things more rapidly than did children at any age up to seventeen years of age, and that the younger the group of children the longer it took them to learn any of the things on which he tested them

This epoch-making experiment is still inadequate as a measure of the superiority of the adult learning capacity, because the learning in nearly all of the fields tested is very largely mere memory work and does not enable the

adult to make use of his superior experience of life, such as would be the case in interpreting or criticizing literature, history, economics, or any other social science. But it does show that adults learn more rapidly than children even in the fields in which children were supposed to excel.

The experience in colleges and night schools for adults has supported Thorndike's findings. The experts teaching illiterates in the United States, for example, have found that an average illiterate American adult can complete in one hundred one-hour lessons the equivalent of the work of the first three grades of the public schools, on which normal six- to eight-year-old children spend more than two thousand hours. Likewise, in the city colleges in which professors teach the same course in the evening to adults that they teach to youngsters in the regular day session, it is the common experience that the adults surpass the young students. Part of this is due to the superior mental maturity, but part to greater earnestness of purpose. However, earnestness of purpose is a vital factor in all learning.

But, after all, the rapidity of learning is not so important as the intelligence of one's learning—how well can one comprehend the full meaning of the thing learned, criticize it, evaluate it, and apply it to life? These are the most important aspects of learning. As one's ability in each of these aspects of learning is limited by his store of old ideas already in mind from past experience that are related to the idea then being considered, it is obvious that the adult has an immeasurable superiority over the child in nearly every important field of thought when it comes to comprehension, criticism, evaluation, and application of new ideas. It seems, then, to be well established that adults, at least up to forty-five years of age, learn more rapidly and comprehend what they learn better than do children.

On the second point, it seems clear now that man does not have just one mental youth, but a series of successive mental youths extending throughout life. Four of these

youths through which the mind passes are now clearly recognizable. The first is from birth until the tenth or twelfth year; the second extends through pubescence and adolescence up until the twentieth or twenty-second year; the third from this period on to the climacteric at about fifty; and the fourth, or post-climacteric youth, which starts after fifty and extends indefinitely. Each of these periods brings to the mind new interests, aptitudes, and capacities which hitherto had been absent or only slightly manifested.

During the first mental youth, from birth to ten or twelve years of age, the child is interested primarily in seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling, handling things, and in acquiring the neuromuscular coördinations of eating, walking, talking, reading, writing, and other such conventionally useful coördinations. During pubescence and adolescence a second mental youth arrives, bringing to the adolescent new interests, aptitudes, and tendencies centering around love of the opposite sex, with rich new emotional accompaniments; new moral and religious questionings; new anxieties about his future; new interests in art, music, science, literature, social life, and problems; and so on. The adolescent at seventeen, for example, is living in a new mental youth that was impossible for him at seven. This much is now generally recognized. The elementary school, largely concerned with teaching the tools of learning and the more useful coördinations of reading, writing, etc., helps to develop the powers of the first mental youth, and the high school and college minister to the new and richer mental interests and capacities of adolescence.

But it has been tacitly assumed that at graduation from college, at the close of adolescence, all of man's mental youths were over, and that from then on it was a problem of postponing as long as possible the drying up and hardening of his mind along with the hardening of his arteries.

This we now recognize is a serious mistake. Man at twenty-one still has at least two more mental youths coming to him. The new interests and powers that come with the

middle-age period from twenty-five to fifty are apparent when we compare the mind of a thirty-seven-year-old man with that of a seventeen-year-old adolescent. The man at thirty-seven has largely given up the wild emotional love dreams and the extravagant ideals and ambitions of adolescence. Now, his mental life centers around supporting a wife and family, securing a home, building a decent social order in which to live and rear his family, getting economic independence, and, above all, getting ahead in his business or profession. These are the interests that occupy constantly the best thoughts of the middle-aged man. When he was seventeen they were absent or very incidental.

After fifty, these family, civic, economic, and professional interests in turn wane. Love of activity grows less, while a tendency to meditation and reflection increases. Experience and knowledge having been amassed in many fields the interest now is rather in finding out what it all means and whither it leads. The emotions do not now so imperiously dominate, and matters are given less personal reference. This is man's philosophic youth, when the waning of passion and the recession of disturbing emotions and selfish ambitions give the calm necessary for clear thinking.

Of course, not every individual passes through all these mental youths. Some feeble-minded adults never get beyond the sensuous childhood stage, while others never develop out of their adolescent mental interests and activities. Still others, by neglect of their higher possibilities, may become fixed for life in their occupational, economic, or family interests. Again, just as some are born with better bodies than others, and as some mar their future physical development by improper treatment of their bodies, so some are naturally possessed of finer mental potentialities, and some injure their minds and prevent full development. What is meant is that a normally endowed, vigorous mind can and, if properly educated, does pass through the several successive stages of development roughly outlined above.

If this analysis of the process of man's mental development be correct, then the aim of adult education is not merely to help those who were unfortunate in youth to make up in adult life for their lack of early formal education, but to provide a normal and necessary part of the education of each of us, whether we be college graduate or whatnot. Incidentally, and of necessity, adult education must do what it can to fill up the gaps left by the failures of the education of childhood and youth, but its primary aim should be the development of those interests and capacities which dominate the lives of adult men and women. Just as the chief aim of the education of childhood and youth is to discover and develop the interests and aptitudes of the first two mental youths—those of childhood and adolescence—so adult education should aim primarily to develop the interests, powers, and talents of the later two mental youths of adult life. Man cannot be completely educated during childhood and youth, for the simple reason that he is not yet all there to be educated.

It is a sad commentary upon our educational leadership that thus far we have in the main in our schools for adults striven to thrust upon mature adults the subject matter and methods of instruction devised from ten to a hundred or more years ago for children and youths, just as we dumped upon college women a generation ago the existing curricula devised for men. Obviously, the subject matter and the principles of adult education and the methods of teaching adults should grow out of the motives, the needs, and the instinctive and occupational drives that move adult men and women, and not be dragged over into adult education from the schools of childhood and adolescence. Conversely, we should cease assuming that man must complete his formal education by twenty-one or twenty-two years of age and attempting to cram into the first twenty years of life all the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and interests of both childhood and manhood. It is no wonder that our present crowded, confused school and college life is so lacking in

a sense of reality and vitality. Our school activities will acquire the vitality and reality of our athletics and our vocational occupations only when the present schools base their work primarily upon the interests, needs, and aptitudes of childhood and adolescence, and when the future adult schools and colleges care for the needs, interests, and powers that dominate adult life.

But, developing from within outward the desirable inborn potentialities of man is not the whole work of education. Man is born into a vast and intricate mesh of physical things and forces, and an even more complicated environment of family, civic, social, economic, moral, and religious customs, laws, institutions, and ideals. These he must understand and adjust himself to wisely, or they will thwart and torment him or even destroy him entirely. The schools for adults must, therefore, also aim to help adults to comprehend the significant laws of the physical universe and the rationality and irrationalities of the civilization about them.

This would not be easy if all this complex physical, human, and ideal environment remained the same from generation to generation. But, unfortunately, it is changing constantly. The laws of physical nature seem constant, but the race's knowledge of these laws is forever changing, while the civic, social, and economic facts, processes, and rules are changing all the time and demanding ever new and better adjustments. The established law or custom or process of one decade is repealed or discarded in the next. The skilled hand worker yields to the hand machine, which in turn is forced out of business by the factory-line mass production. The railroad takes away a large part of the function of the horse and wagon, only too soon to find itself being pushed to the wall by the motor truck, pipe line, power line, motor stage, and airplane. The ever increasing applications to industry of the principles of art and of the physical, biological, statistical, psychological, and social sciences compel constant industrial readjustments. Besides the hundreds of laboratories in the colleges, there are in the great industries of the

United States alone sixteen hundred scientific laboratories, some of which employ more than a thousand trained men and women and expend several millions a year on scientific investigation of industrial processes. The need, then, for constant readjustment to the industrial world must grow more and more imperative every year.

Similarly, the social and civic readjustments demanded are growing ever more numerous and frequent, while even the traditional family adjustments are yielding more and more to city life, factory production, and the impact of schools, hospitals, and changing ideals. Moral and religious conceptions and practices are likewise undergoing frequent changes. What was regarded a little while ago as governmental interference with business is now eagerly sought by producer and consumer alike. Old ideas of property and individual rights are rapidly being discarded under the pressure of changing conditions of living. So rapid are these changes that there existed when I was in college thirty-five years ago none of the most pressing governmental problems of today. Shall the United States join the League of Nations; shall it remit the debts of the Allies; how shall it curb the super-power trust; how shall it control the radio and the airplane; how shall it prevent overproduction; how shall it find work enough for its population; and so on. The struggle up to a few years ago was to find means of producing enough food, clothing, and shelter, and to find workers enough to carry on the work of the world. With the perfection of modern machinery and the applications of the sciences to industry, the pressing problem is changed to one of wise distribution and consumption.

It is no wonder that the world is now confronted with serious maladjustments and threatened catastrophe in our family, civic, and economic life. The multiplicity and complexity of the processes of civilization have grown too great for these to be mastered by the immature minds of children and youths in the brief school and college years, or by the hit-or-miss method of trial and error of adult life. The maladjustments in recent years have rapidly grown

more menacing. It is clear that we can no longer direct the processes of adult civilization with the education of youth. Our vital moral, religious, social, civic, and economic problems are studied now during adolescence, when we have little interest and very limited experience or capacity for giving them intelligent consideration. Then, after we get out into life and obtain the experience, the interests, and the mental maturity that would enable us to think about these things more intelligently, we cease studying them and devote systematic study only to our personal, professional, and business interests, and therefore continue through life living in a child's or adolescent's mental world in regard to those aspects of life that make civilization possible.

The second general aim, then, of our adult educational system must be to help the adult, during the leisure provided by modern life, increase his vocational efficiency, and adjust wisely to his physical, human, and spiritual environment through systematic study of the facts, principles, and problems in our family, civic, social, and economic life.

Since the interests, aptitudes, and powers which education must develop are continually changing and presenting new opportunities for education even into old age, and since the personal, civic, social, economic, and spiritual environment to which education must help us adjust is also ever changing and making new demands, it is obvious that education is a continuous, lifelong process of development, adjustment, and readjustment. For the adult past fifty to whine for the past pleasures of adolescence or early manhood, instead of developing the new interests and capacities of his age, is as absurd as it would be for the adolescent to cry for the departed joys of a rattle.

The past century witnessed the establishment of universal education of childhood and youth, resulting in an era of the greatest progress ever recorded by man. This century will see the establishment of universal adult education, bringing now undreamed-of advances in efficiency, in culture, and in human welfare.

THE BROOKLYN ADULT-EDUCATION STUDY¹

FRANK LORIMER

There is a class of social studies, appropriately described as "technoloid," which must be distinguished from strictly technical studies yielding quantitative results through the impersonal application of standardized methods on the one hand, and from purely subjective inquiries, on the other. The Brooklyn adult-education study very definitely belongs in this intermediate category. The whole fabric of the published report is *subjective* in its construction, and the implications of the findings are subjectively developed. The study throughout has been controlled, so far as possible, by the use of systematic techniques of investigation and by the impersonal statistical treatment of data. The number of individuals interviewed or answering the questionnaires was necessarily very small in comparison with the total population of the area. Much attention was directed towards securing as representative a sampling as possible, and the characteristics of the sample are checked against the general population. Nevertheless, the conclusions should in all cases be regarded as suggestive rather than final or authoritative. The scientific quality of any study is conditioned by the limitation of the problem and by amplitude of resources in services and machinery. The Brooklyn study was as broad as all outdoors, and the only resources available were the services of a small staff during one year, with elementary equipment. The results are perhaps as "objective" as might be expected under these circumstances.

A somewhat original twist was given to the study in its inception by the local group, the Brooklyn Conference on Adult Education, which was responsible for launching the project. This group, among whom Seymour Barnard was the presiding genius, conceived the possibility of approaching the study of the place of adult education in the

¹See also review of the published report, *The Making of Adult Minds in a Metropolitan Area*, p. 624 of this issue

community, not through the usual analysis of educational processes, but through a study of the development of adult interests and activities in the community at large. This conception determined the character of the survey as an exploratory investigation.

In this instance the partial control of results through the use of standardized research techniques was supplemented by the development of conference methods in the formulation of interpretations. Suggestions originated in many quarters, of course, and were organized and given preliminary formulation by the research director. Several principles of adjustment between the director and local committee were explicitly recognized. It may be worth while to record these principles in some detail, because such adjustments are of crucial importance in many social surveys.

A small study committee held frequent meetings at which the director was always, except under unusual circumstances, expected to be present. Matters of budget control were primarily the responsibility of the committee. Matters of research procedure were primarily the responsibility of the director. In general, however, an informal consensus of judgment was always sought. In the discussion of final presentation, it was agreed that no statement of fact should be suppressed if supported by evidence derived from systematic investigation. With regard to interpretations and suggestions it was agreed that the presentation on any point of issue should follow the group judgment of the study committee, in conference with the research director. Prior to the final conference on text each member of the study committee prepared a draft of comments, objections, and suggestions in two classes: minor comments, referred entirely to the judgment of the director, and major comments recommended for committee consideration. It was, however, explicitly understood that any individual opinions of the director or conference members which were not sustained by such group judgment might be presented in footnotes. As a matter of fact,

however, the "sense of the meeting," to use the Quaker formula, resolved all important divergences of interpretation to such a degree that no individual cared to exercise the right to enter such a demurrer. In several instances institutional representatives did request revisions of text dealing with their particular institutions, but were discouraged from pressing such objections by the consideration that the report should be allowed to stand substantially as drawn by an outside student, the research director. In the opinion of the director the coöperation of the committee under the principles here outlined, far from constituting an embarrassment to effective presentation, very greatly contributed to the validity of the report.

The findings cover the extent of participation by the adult population of Brooklyn in formal educational activities (which is found to be surprisingly high), the division of adult interests among different intellectual activities, responses to various types of educational opportunities, and unexplored possibilities of effective adult education. It would be useless to attempt to summarize these findings, and in several instances summary statements might be misleading if considered apart from the context in which they are presented.

It may be worth while, however, to consider at this time some of the larger aspects of the problem of "the making of adult minds in a metropolitan area." Facilities for broadcasting knowledge and artistic culture are now so advanced that the problems of metropolitan culture today are focused in the problem of individual participation. Of course, much might be done to improve the efficacy of libraries, museums, and other educational services. Some suggestions to this effect are discussed in the report. Furthermore, in the case of some cultural agencies, notably the radio, commercial interests have probably depressed the services *below* the level of popular taste. Some evidence was found that a considerable proportion of the population would at least welcome a superior type of

music in radio programs. But probably as long as radio culture in America is controlled by the attempt of advertising agents to reach "everybody" in every program, little diversity or quality of performance can be expected in this sphere. Individual participation is, however, by all odds the crucial factor in American cultural life.

How can the intellectual interests of individuals be stimulated and developed? There are many answers, such as nursery schools, experimental primary schools, secondary schools and universities, and small adult classes with emphasis on individual development. All of these types of activity open important lines of approach. The Brooklyn report lays emphasis on the undeveloped spiritual values of vocational education, classes for immigrants, and other types of study which at present are frequently illiberally directed. The furtherance of democracy, security in work, and the stimulation of creative individual participation in industry presents another and no less fundamental approach.

Another interesting phase of the problem of American culture is raised by the query as to what sort of responses to educational opportunities may be expected in the next generation in view of the predominant sources of natural increase in contemporary metropolitan life. Some light on this problem is afforded by an analysis of size of family in relation to educational experience, carried out on the same data, since publication of the report, but limited to a small sample of married persons, aged forty-one or over, living with spouse. The results of this analysis, which were not available at the time of the report, run with reference to educational classification as shown on page 483.

These results suggest certain social and educational problems which are engaging the attention of the writer at the present time. It is possible that population trends and family customs constitute an important group among the social affairs which warrant more imaginative consideration in the development of lines of adult education than they ordinarily receive.

ANALYSIS OF SIZE OF FAMILY

<i>School Attendance</i>	<i>Average Number of Living Children</i>
Persons reporting grammar school only, no adult courses (267 cases)	3.1
Persons reporting grammar school only, supple- mented by adult courses (60 cases)	2.0
Persons reporting high school only, no adult courses (48 cases)	2.5
Persons reporting high school only, supplemented by adult courses (37 cases)	1.8
Persons reporting college, one year or more (69 cases)	1.7

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

N. C. MILLER

Pioneering in certain fields, because in the beginning there were no other agencies to do the work held necessary, university extension has successively, and sometimes simultaneously, undertaken activities considered in a general way appertaining to the public-school systems, to private organizations, to vocational schools, to the industries in their training activities, and to the graduate schools in all the fields touched. In-service education for business and the professions developed along with the other training activities.

Any educational system, and I believe university extension may properly be called an educational system, so widespread in both theory and practice must indeed be universal in many senses. It must suffer occasionally in the comparison of its loose articulation with the closely-knit individual systems of the separate functions it has undertaken to administer.

With such a broad field thinly spread out in some regions (both educational and geographical), it is quite conceivable that at one place or another marked changes could take place in both methods and content. Its occasional or progressive relinquishment of specific activities due to the enactment of Federal and State laws, the erection of educational units in growing number to perform the functions it formerly was charged with, might, to one not viewing the whole field of university extension, be considered an obsolescence of essential functions.

This is by no means the case. Recognized as a useful adjunct to an incomplete public educational system, capable of reaching the most distant hamlet or the most crowded metropolitan area, it grew almost overnight to its present proportion. An adjunct which was able to capitalize campus

facilities in the interest of the most diverse requests, from child study to factory management, from folk dances to drama writing, from preparation towards an air pilot's license to postgraduate surgery, could not but develop in a remarkable manner. We may be sure that it has been remarked upon, and in no uncertain terms.

The willingness to make education available to all has subjected university extension to the same general criticism that Dr. Flexner made of the American university. Upon his conception of the function of the university, Dr. Flexner condemns the teaching of such subjects as journalism, business administration, pedagogy, to name only a few, as improper for a university. Without entering into the controversy excited by Dr. Flexner's definition of a university and the attempts to list the real universities of the country, it might be proper to indicate a point that seems to have been overlooked in many quarters.

Apart from any academic delimitation of the functions of a supposititious university, the practical administrators of the physical university—as a growing concern of teachers, learners, physical equipment, in a growing country needing teachers, journalists, engineers—have responded by undertaking work for which in many cases there are, at present, no other broadly organized facilities.

Whether a factory manager should have a degree—be graduated—whether a journalist should obtain his training in a school erected at the university seat, whether an engineer may be permitted to carry transit or voltmeter past the sacred portals seems to the genuine educator a matter of indifference.

Even Dr. Flexner will admit that these are worthy activities. The university, here in America, responsive to the agency which has created it—the people themselves—has accepted for the nonce a large commission, and is discharging it. If some of the traditional machinery creaks, if there be any terminological inaccuracies in the formulas pronounced over the rostrum in releasing the "graduated" to

their future activities, we need not blush for them. A necessary task is being done by the agencies widely available at present.

There is a certain function that is inherently in the extension service's field—it will always be—until that Utopian time when the world is one great cooperative school—learning while earning. That function is adult education as distinguished from preparatory education which is the whole-time job of the adolescent fitting himself for beginning a career. Education for the man and woman already at work in business and profession—the in-service activity of the university—is the *raison d'être* of the extension division.

The general definition of extension education just given will thus imply both professional and cultural education—taking both words in their broadest sense of vocation and avocation. With the trend of full-time education to include more and more high-grade instruction, university extension will elevate its aims. In some quarters, extension education will continue to supply training in all of the fields that have hitherto been served, by means of all the mediums thus far in use and, indeed, some we do not at present envisage, perhaps. It will, particularly in some quarters, as its clientele will dictate, consider no form of learning too high.

In some quarters progressive relinquishment of lower functions will leave university extension almost entirely in the field of postgraduate work. This will come when every matriculate has a university degree or—let us be wholeheartedly universal—is one who, by personal training and predilection, is capable of benefiting from this postgraduate instruction, one whose presence will not embarrass the work. Intellectual adequacy and professional aptitude will be the sole entrance requirements.

Such a universal university is already in being, in essence, in a considerable number of institutions. Rather than deal in generalizations, it will, perhaps, be preferable to cite specific extension activities which are typical of the work

at one or another institution. It is with this in view that the writer makes reference to his own institution, and, in particular, to projects being carried on under his own direction.

At Rutgers University a postgraduate plan of medical instruction is in operation in everything that makes a school for graduates. Its students have evidenced their intellectual competence by graduation from recognized schools of medicine, and their professional aptitude by successful practice. Their lecturers are from university and hospital staffs, and those sessions which require clinical and laboratory demonstrations are staged in well-equipped operating rooms, hospital wards, and laboratories.

In 56 groups at 38 centers for three years, now, physicians and surgeons in the metropolitan area and the remotest counties have had the benefit of instruction in newer drug therapy and fractures, gynecology, obstetrics, cardiac diseases, gastroenterology, pediatrics, heart and kidney, applied neurology, and recent advances in medicine and surgery. In one county, 77 per cent of the medical men were enrolled. By no other means could anything like this number have spared the time to keep *au courant* with recent developments, and so easily (in the sense of time necessary for preparatory study and conference). This is university extension in its best, and growing, form.

That university extension freely accepted the broad definition of what constitutes education and also what constitutes preparation therefor is evidenced by the Labor Institute held last year under the joint auspices of the New Jersey State Federation of Labor and Rutgers University. With a week's program prepared by the university extension division after conferences with labor leaders, representatives of labor seriously entered upon a busy period of lectures and discussions. The timely topic of unemployment was presented during the second week of June last (June 8-12, 1931) by university professors from Rutgers, New York University, and Princeton University. Labor leaders

presided and national and State officers of the American Federation of Labor, including President Green and Vice President Matthew Woll, took part.

A third activity at the same institution will supply the evidence of variety of aim with similarity in method. This is the real-estate education program which in its threefold aspect exhibits all three forms of educational administration. In addition to a resident course projected for students preparing for the real-estate profession and a research project under the Bureau of Economic and Business Research, there is a broad extension program.

The extension program in real estate includes both evening classes of the usual form and institutes concentrated in the form of weekly series at numerous centers about the State. Both classes and institutes draw from the same clientele in general, employees of real-estate companies, the agents themselves and their salesmen, brokers, tax assessors, and title-company men.

An extension program in a laboratory setting is a post-graduate activity which was organized after conferences with the university school concerned. A course in "petroleum technology" in charge of a consulting chemist was offered—a better word would be "supplied"—to a group of university and college graduates already at work in the petroleum industry. The teachers of chemistry will appreciate what a privilege it is to work with a group which comes *asking* for a specific course, which is already active in a field to which they may daily apply their successive increments of expert instruction and, perhaps, even extend their outlined exercises of the experimental laboratory to the broader techniques of practical application with commercial quantities of materials and engineering equipment capable of putting small-scale manipulation to industrial test.

That such narrow specialization, quite beyond the possibilities of the usual university resident course, could be organized and administered is indicative of the minute sub-

division possible under an intelligently construed university extension charter.

In the field of management, Rutgers carries on a work which is typical of that done by a few university extension divisions. Classes are made up in the main of men and women pursuing courses covering the various aspects of industrial organization and management, factory planning, and personnel problems. In addition to classroom courses, a general program of lectures and discussions is administered through the medium of the Management Institute, an organization composed of graduates from the management courses. By this arrangement, both formal and informal graduate study is fostered.

A new extension activity at Rutgers is in the field of social service. There has been inaugurated a series of courses in public welfare work, undertaken at the instance of the New Jersey Conference of Social Work, which has already attracted 200 persons, of whom 35 per cent hold university degrees.

The amazing variety of sound instruction available through home-study courses—the correspondence school—has well established the earlier claim of this extension activity to being the university of the people. It is a permanent fixture for the extension field. In spite of the multiplication of mediums for conveying instruction, there remains one thing which is the backbone of all education—the printed book. Lectures, pictures, the museum, *viva-voce* recitations, conferences, all are but adjuncts. Their novelty or their flexibility may make them valuable for creating contacts and maintaining interest. They are successful only in so far as they lead back to the book.

A lecture service to women's clubs, school and home associations, patriotic groups and service organizations, and civic bodies, in the interest of culture and the extension of good citizenship is a standing obligation recognized even by the universities not formally accredited to the extension field. It is this very activity which is often adverted to by those

who consider extension education to be synonymous with frills. Such contributions as are assembled under the general head of lecture service are the serious concern and duty of every important educational institution, and no amount of ribald comment on some negligible quotation from some public utterance will alter that fact.

It is when such services, like all other external educational activities, are organized under a responsible extension head that the university will be spared the occasional embarrassment alluded to. Not that extension lecturers are always paragons of either consistency or discretion, but they are under a certain definite responsibility and their subjects and methods are accurately known in advance to those who send them forth.

Miscellaneous university lectures are the oldest form of extension education—they are still among the most popular. As isolated methods of spreading general culture and information, the extension service will retain them in any permanent plan. They will be organized, however, and that organization will make them individually and in series a part of the adult-education program.

It strikes the university extension man as odd, occasionally, that certain of its definite functions are assumed for a time by other institutional agencies and interests. The stirring of interest in alumni education as a special function of the alumni organization, even when extensive facilities are available, is a recent phenomenon. When used frankly, as one alumni secretary admits, to get the alumnus back to the campus to sit at his old desk and hear, with a little more tolerance, his old professors, nothing need be said of its extension aspects. But to duplicate the organization often already on the campus for the purpose of substituting a thin program of directed reading or similar "soft" projects for serious extension courses, and lure away from serious study groups of university men who would form or already do form the nucleus of more worth-while cultural and professional training projects is obviously an error.

Funds used for alumni study purposes might better be added to general extension funds and alumni organization effort might better be expanded in acquainting the alumnus with his opportunities and, in a manner, obligation to community projects already in being.

Radio in education—a whole field by itself, still in its infancy, and yet with some major problems so intimately confused with commercial implication and active opposition—must logically come within the scope of the extension university. It must not, in particular, be left to the none too tender mercies of irresponsible commercial agencies as a mere and negligible adjunct to blatant advertising campaigns

Although at first sight the radio seems to offer a wonderful medium for university extension, and it may be eventually, there are some practical considerations and some unfortunate developments which threaten the existence of this medium for *any* educational purpose. Despite the ambitious projects for schools of the air, there is threatening an almost insuperable obstacle to the use of radio for any serious educational purpose.

Dr. Joy Elmer Morgan, editor of the *Journal of Adult Education*, said last May in New York City: "The radio interests have, so far, thrown their major influence on the side of greed. There has not been in the entire history of the United States an example of mismanagement and lack of vision so colossal and far-reaching in its consequences as our turning of the radio channels almost exclusively into commercial hands."

In any case the extensive use of the air is limited to oral instruction and the present lecture facilities may be converted to radio use, without change, once the educational use of the air is obtained. The present brief programs interjected between the advertiser's practical monopolization of the ether are of negligible value for serious extension service. Popular broadcasts are more like leaflets and tabloid sheets than serious radio-instruction material.

At present radio is a liability to extension; that is, university extension finds itself called upon to fight for the use of the air—not to go out and use it. *En passant*, this militant duty is one not to be neglected by the extension university. It is as important a battle, in a way, as any fought since Milton's struggle for the freedom of the press.

As demands in other fields follow the pioneer offerings in selected localities and selected subjects, university extension envisages a future as broad as education itself. A shifting of emphasis from the lower level, even the actual relinquishment of large congeries of subjects, does not presage the cessation of university extension but rather the completion of one or several phases or stages. The final and permanent stage is a broad field on a high level, administered without academic prejudice. That field will welcome the university graduate. It will likewise welcome the intelligent seeker after knowledge and culture, regardless of his academic standing, who by preparation and predilection is able to profit from the university's offerings. We shall then have a veritable extension of the university to its true stature.

SOME RURAL ASPECTS OF ADULT EDUCATION

KENYON L. BUTTERFIELD

About a year ago I had the exhilarating experience of spending three days with Dr. James Yen and his colleagues at Tingshien in North China where they are carrying on their remarkable work in mass education. The story of how Dr. Yen has developed his "Thousand Character System" for teaching the ordinary peasant to read during the four months of idle time which he has every winter is well known. But it is not so well understood that it is far more than a literacy movement. This group of some forty highly trained Chinese is carrying on both research and demonstration in such fields as health, agriculture, citizenship, and even art, as foundations for a systematic and widely extended movement not only to teach the Chinese peasants to read but to give them the right sort of reading and the means of continuing their reading indefinitely. It requires little imagination to picture a new China emerging from such a stupendous undertaking.

The problem of illiteracy in China is repeated in India, in Africa, in the Near East, to a lesser degree in Russia. There are probably 1,000 million illiterates in the world, and most of them live in rural areas. Just teaching the world to read is one of the great tasks of civilization; it is largely the "job" of rural adult education. And when these multitudes are taught to read—what then? What part shall their new tool have in gaining an insight into *the modern world of science, in fitting them for self-government—yes, in utilizing religion as a means of living the abundant life?* Indeed, the "habit of international cooperation," which after all is the surest guarantee of the world's peace, can with difficulty be practised among the rural people of the world until through reading, as well as other forms of gaining information, they come to know something of the problems of the "folk of the furrow."

In many European countries and in the United States,

the problem of illiteracy is not so pressing as in other continents, consequently the opportunities for the more formal and advanced types of adult education are apparent. Yet the widely differing aspects of rural adult education in such countries as Great Britain and the United States, and in China and among other hosts of illiterates, indicate the magnitude of this problem. The world movement for adult education must attend fully to all aspects of continuing education, as a supplement to the conventional schooling of the billion farmers of the world.

These introductory statements indicate something of the extent and the significance of rural adult education in its world aspects. Let us proceed to consider those phases of the movement that are of more especial importance in the United States, first, from the point of view of the work now being done, and second, from that of future needs.

The United States has, in its "Cooperative Extension Work in Agriculture and Home Economics," probably the most elaborate project in rural adult education in the world. During the last fiscal year there were nearly 6,200 paid workers and over 250,000 voluntary helpers, and it was estimated that not less than 25,000,000 people were "reached" by the work, which is now less than 20 years old. The annual cost of this service is some \$26,000,000. Moreover, the publications of results of the investigational work of the United States Department of Agriculture and of the State experiment stations are pouring into the homes of our farmers an amazing amount of printed information of interest and value to them.

With respect to the agencies of rural adult education, it may be said that first of all we must bear in mind that the publicly-supported system of cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics is not only the most extensive and popular system of rural adult education which we are likely to have, but that it is capable of carrying a goodly share in the new developments that may be found necessary and practicable. Probably these newer plans must come partly out of the inspiration and genius

of a few of the more forward-looking leaders in the extension service, though partly also from farmers themselves. Both groups may however perhaps be stimulated and encouraged by outside agencies.

The schools and colleges have a task in this field. The rural high schools certainly, and personally I think the lower schools, as well as the agricultural colleges, should help their former students to keep up their education, especially those who do not go on to advanced schooling. This means that the teachers of all grades in education must appreciate the significance, the character, and the method of continuing education and must be encouraged if not required to make it organic in the school itself. For the desire to learn and how to keep on learning must be fostered by the school. Moreover the school itself, especially in rural communities, should be the center of the larger share of the adult education in the community.

The library is essential in adult education. Considering the needs of rural people, the American rural library is pathetically inadequate. This statement does not ignore the work which State libraries and librarians have been doing for a generation, but the fact of inadequacy still remains. Eighty-three per cent of the rural people in the United States have no local library facilities; some States do not have even a State library; while 1,135 counties, or more than one third of the rural counties, have no public library at all. Here is unquestionably an opportunity for one of the great "drives" in rural adult education.

The educational value of farmers' organizations can scarcely be overstated. For example, the Grange, the oldest of them, has maintained definite educational hours in the local Grange meetings, and this quite apart from the incidental educational value of managing an organization and of dealing with the various problems in which it is interested. But these farm groups have not yet risen to the height of their possibilities as educational centers.

There is, too, the country church and its various sub-

ordinate agencies like the Sunday school and the young people's societies. We must not underrate the enormous educational accomplishments of the country church. But again we must remind ourselves how much more it can do. The church itself as an organization, and its Sunday school particularly, has in its hands one of the greatest of opportunities in rural continuing education, not only in the field of distinctively religious education, but what is perhaps of greater importance, in the field of education which interprets life and conduct and the relations of human beings, in religious terms. The enormous possibilities lying ahead of a well-organized country church in the field of "continuing education," are most challenging and inspiring. For example, to take only one aspect of this field as yet wholly undeveloped, the Sunday school might coöperate with the public school in "life counseling" for youth.

Turning now to a discussion of the direction of probable future developments in this field, it is necessary to also more specifically point out the inadequacy of the work now being done. First of all, it is important to extend the informal types of rural adult education, both with regard to groups to be reached and subjects to be considered. New Federal appropriations will help put the extension work of the agricultural colleges into practically every rural county in United States. In nearly every county many communities do not measure up to their opportunities for educational aid. Thus far moreover the content of this service is dominantly in the field of applications of the physical and biological sciences. Only a beginning has been made in extension work in the economic field, and almost nothing has been done relative to social problems, except in homemaking. The fields of literature, drama, music, art, history, philosophy are almost untouched. Even science, aside from its vocational applications, has had slight attention. Thus at once there opens out the possibility of a great enlargement in this already extensive program of rural adult education.

While various projects have been undertaken to assist groups of farmers to employ advantageously the discussion method, this form of work has not been given the attention it deserves. It is possible to develop a better technique of group discussion than we have heretofore had. On a satisfactory technique depends in no small degree the educational value of a widespread scheme for thousands of local groups of rural folk. The supply of authoritative material growing out of scientific research must be combined with trained leadership in utilizing this material, alongside the experience of farmers themselves, and out of it all getting a matured and stable group opinion. Forums and debates have their place, but the great need is to provide material, method, stimulus, leadership for sustained local group thinking in multitudes of rural communities throughout the country.

The problem of the reading habits of the farmers needs attention. Farmers read, and they think about what they read, but most of them do not read enough and are not sufficiently readers of books dealing with the great problems of the time, both their own problems and those of society in general. Consideration must be had of the necessary limitations under which farmers work—long hours in the open air and a never-ceasing round of "chores" of all sorts that are time consuming and that seem unavoidable. Then too the need of escape from the farm itself to the recreations and relaxations of neighborhood and village and city cannot be gainsaid. The root difficulty lies in the failure of the rural home and the rural school to coöperate in inculcating and stimulating the reading interest. Here one wishes to plead for the idea lying in the words "continuing education," for continuing education is a habit and a permanent interest in life rather than a piece of educational machinery. Among rural people the habit should root itself deeply in the schools, it needs the encouragement of constant practice after school days, and both stimulus and material for reading must be at hand

Both radio and motion pictures are increasingly utilized in rural adult education, but their full possibilities have not yet been explored.

When we come to the more formal types of rural adult education, progress has been discouragingly slow. Study and correspondence courses were started by one or two agricultural colleges as many as 35 years ago, but there has developed as yet no real system, on a scale commensurate with the need, of organized lectures, lecture courses, reading courses, correspondence courses, that really reach the people of the farm or even the people of the villages. These formal types of adult education in the country are difficult to develop, but they form a major need in rural adult education. One might almost say that the very success and extent of the great cooperative extension work has been a bar to the development of these important formal types, for it has taken the farmers' time and energy and on the surface seems to supply the need.

One or two allusions have been made to the use of the words "continuing education." Personally I like the term better than adult education for many reasons, but particularly for a very practical reason. There are in this country today in city as well as in country hundreds of thousands of young people between the ages of 14 and 24 who have "finished" school. Even if there were the most complete provision for adult education, these youngsters have not yet fitted themselves into those economic and social groups that are likely to use the agencies of adult education. In the interests of adult education itself, to say nothing of the interests of the people involved, here is grave danger of a serious hiatus in our adult educational scheme. Provision for those out-of-school, and in a sense out-of-society, youth must be the direct object of one of the most significant and difficult aspects of adult or "continuing" education.

Underlying all types of continuing education which involve large numbers of rural folk, institutions and organ-

izations must provide the materials and suggest the technique which can be used by the rural groups under their own voluntary or lay leadership. Classes or similar groups wholly under professional teaching or leadership can play but a small part in any adequate scheme.

In closing, may there be just a word about content? I think the educational world makes a serious blunder in endeavoring sharply to differentiate cultural and occupational education. Not for a moment would I wish that interests lying quite apart from and far beyond the task of making a living should fail to be a part of every one's opportunity and education. Unquestionably, leisure earned by successful work should be utilized for the enrichment of the spirit of man. But the rub comes in assuming that making a living is merely making a living. Every person in the process of making a living is also making a life. It may be a good living and a poor life, or it may be a poor living and a good life, or it may be both or neither. But work, the "job," the occupation may make or mar men and women in the very depths of their personalities. We almost completely ignore this fact in education; we continue to make compartments.

Therefore a major need in rural adult education is to show farm people themselves how their work, their daily task, the job of being a farmer, may contribute more fully both to good citizenship and to their personal growth in mind and heart. No occupation in the world, aside possibly from the higher reaches of so-called professional life, lends itself to this principle of human growth so well as does agriculture.

Indubitably, abundant provision should also be made for education in the distinctive problems of citizenship, and in those realms of art, literature, philosophy, that for want of a better designation we call cultural. A cultivated rural people is one of the aims of the everlasting quest for democracy.

SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF PARENT EDUCATION

EDUARD C. LINDEMAN

Parent education represents a need, an idea, a program, and a movement. In some respects it comes nearer being a true folk or social movement with an educational base than anything that has happened in America since the decline of lyceums and chautauquas.¹ The reason for this peculiar position of parent education is to be found, so I believe, in the fact that family life has suffered more than any of our other traditional institutions from the impact of urbanization and industrialization. In short, folk movements with learning at their base arise at points of cultural unadjustment; the American family needs a new process in order to accommodate itself to the emerging cultural pattern which surrounds it, and until this process is achieved family life will be the area of cumulative disturbance.

Parents want to know; they have misgivings about themselves as parents and as adults, they stand baffled before their children who are motivated by the newer cultural forces both in school and in the stimulating community; they know that a so-called "new psychology" is abroad and that it is supposed to supply answers to perplexed parents. Because they are disturbed and because they want to know they reach out for bits of knowledge, new instruments of control, and fresh assurances. This disturbance and this reaching out for help constitutes the impulsive phase of parent education. It shows where the dynamic comes from and consequently furnishes an initial clue for interpretation.²

¹Some may claim that workers' education is more truly a folk movement because it rests upon a class-conscious foundation. But, workers' education as it has evolved in Europe is not a reality in the United States, and principally because of inadequate solidarity of its working class constituency. This statement is not to be taken to imply that a working-class educational, or folk, movement is not possible under our circumstances, but merely as a plain statement of present fact.

²If one were attempting a similar cultural approach to the adult-education movements of Denmark, England, and Germany, one would discover analogous areas of cultural disturbance. The Danish movement rests upon agrarian foundations because it was Danish agriculture and rural life which was uprooted by the catastrophic events of the late-middle nineteenth century, the English movement rests upon a labor base and for similar reasons, and the German movement, so far as it is unique, derives from the cultural compulsions of the new republic.

The difference between a social movement and a social program is to be found in impulse, that is, in dynamic. Programs derive from the wisdom and foresight (or cupidity) of leaders. The leader creates social dynamic by developing consciousness of need and releasing emotional desire. He cannot build a movement unless those who are led become aware of actual wants, needs, desires, wishes, or aspirations, that is, "actual" in the sense that these impulsive qualities are seen as related to situations and problems other than those on the emotional plane. The energy which the leader releases through emotional means is soon dissipated unless the releasing procedure is in and of itself rational, or educative. Otherwise, the followers can only place their faith in the leader and so long as he leads wisely or retains power they may attain the objects of their need, but, the moment this sort of leader is dropped from the social equation, the followers are lost; they stand without intellectual resources of their own and consequently fall prey to the next allure of the emotional leader.

From the above theoretical point of view one begins to appreciate the "movement" aspect of parent education. Its impulse has been at work for a half century or more in various spontaneous manifestations of parents, particularly in relation to schools and teachers. Gradually, this dynamic reached such proportions as to create the need for other types of leadership, professional and technical. One may now observe the movement as a social phenomenon in all its constituent parts: the perplexity of parents; the awareness of need; the desire for new knowledge; small collective enterprises resident in neighborhoods and local communities; the supply of new knowledge through publications and laboratories; the rise of technical leaders; and finally, the emergence of administrative or organizational leadership.

The above sketch will serve, I trust, to orient the reader with respect to the generalized social setting of parent education. With this cultural context in mind, we may,

perhaps, find profit in making brief analyses of some of the more detailed aspects of the movement.

FAMILY LIFE AS AN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Learning is a kind of awareness. Sense perceptions are, therefore, primary considerations. I cannot learn from you unless I perceive you. Likewise, one does not learn from the flow of experience unless sensitivity to experience as change has somehow been cultivated. But, even this elementary form of awareness is not enough for true learning, sensitivity to the qualitative aspects of experience is required. Every one realizes the extent to which family life serves as a habit former and tradition stabilizer. We may be born into society and the state and the church but none of these institutions begins its habit-imposing process as soon as the family, nor does any one of the above three persist in its impact with quite the same force. And, because we see so much of family, and incorporate so much of its texture within our personalities, we are likely to take family experience for granted.

Family experience need not be the epitome of mediocrity. Indeed no form of human association is of necessity drab. Lack of awareness, lack of sensitivity, reduces all experience to a dead level. Education within the family group begins, then, when its members begin to cultivate an awareness of themselves as persons and as interacting units in a social process.

Towards which aspects of family life might attention be directed if learning is the end in view? The easiest answer is, of course, towards the whole, because all social process is latent with qualitative meaning. But in terms of our present sociological interest it may be more pointed to suggest that our initial learning awareness might be focused upon the various forms of *relatedness*³ expressed in family organization and experience. Perhaps in no

³It may be noted that the term "relatedness" implies a graded discrimination. To *relate*, *relation*, *relationship*, and *relatedness* represent roughly the sequence in which the last term carries the qualitative burden and becomes more truly a psycho-sociological concept.

other type of human association is it possible to combine so wide a range and so rich a potentiality of human relatedness as in the family group. A partial listing of such forms may suffice to strengthen the above statement:

The family represents possibilities of relatedness which are

1. Genetic, that is, representative of various ages
2. Administrative, that is, of the essence of functions
3. Directive, that is, symbolic of controls and conditionings
4. Psycho-intellectual, that is, indicative of various intelligence levels
5. Psycho-emotional, that is, representative of varieties of emotional tone, depth, range, intensity, etc

In order to bring the above conception of relatedness into alignment with the learning process one should perform at least two further tasks; namely, point out some of the varieties of relatedness under each of the above categories as these reveal themselves in actual family experience, and indicate how awareness of the qualitative aspects of relatedness may become the starting point for a cumulative educational procedure within the family group. To perform these tasks would, obviously, lead us to the consideration of details inappropriate for the purposes of a brief essay.

PARENT EDUCATION AS A GROUP PROCESS

Much of current parent education consists of a desire to secure knowledge for purposes of meeting a specific need. One might infer, therefore, that all that is needed is a set of facilities for transporting specific information to those parents who need it. This might be accomplished, for example, by means of such agencies as were equipped to reduce technical information to nontechnical, consumption terms, that is, by a "stepping-down" procedure. No doubt, many persons conceive of parent education in this manner and consequently newspapers and magazines find it profitable to cater to the parent's need by means of

special columns and departments. There is also a growing body of specialists devoted to the function of transmitting specific information to parents in the light of their specific needs. To the extent that parent education proceeds in this fashion, that is, from individual need to specific advice, it belongs to the technological world and is not representative of a social movement. However, parent education creates three collateral forces; namely: (a) class solidarity, that is, a folk feeling; (b) intellectual release in the form of continued learning in the interest of social control; and (c) cultural unity. Consequently, it seems to me that it is legitimate to think of parent education as a folk movement. Certainly, the parent does not reach out for new knowledge in a competitive spirit; he or she does not desire education in order to rise superior to other parents. Indeed, one of the basic factors in parent education, from the community standpoint, is its social compulsion. The single family which elevates its standards above those of the surrounding families of the interacting community without giving attention to the problem of its community context runs the risk of defeating itself.

Whether the above reasoning is correct or not, one discovers that parents are learning in groups. Many of them find it easier to express their needs in this communal manner. Also, many find it easier to learn as parts of a joint process. The group serves, first of all, as a means of grading the expert's knowledge for the users. Often these groups are led by parents, so-called "lay leaders," who do not wear the badge of expert but are merely parents or adults with certain special abilities useful in democratic proceedings; they know how to evoke responses, to enlist participation, to reach beyond verbiage, to release from inhibitions, to reveal needs, to place new knowledge within a growth sequence, etc. Above these leaders stand the experts who may be wise in the ways of technology and exceedingly inept in transmitting their knowledge to

those in need. The total group process, and again description must be abbreviated, consists of parents, leaders, and technologists all working together in the interest of a set of needs which derives from cultural unadjustment. The net consequence of such units of cooperation within the "folk" is, patently, cultural ferment, an agitation from which one may justifiably expect important social results to flow.

PARENT EDUCATION IN RELATION TO COMMUNITY
ORGANIZATION

All educational movements founded upon real folk needs tend sooner or later to become organized, and parent education is no exception to this rule. In fact, a National Council of Parent Education already exists for the express purpose of coordinating the various organizations, agencies, and institutions engaged in some phase of parent education, and reverberations of an international body are beginning to be heard. In certain sections there are State organizations, usually under the supervision of departments of education but sometimes existing as voluntary forms of association. From the sociological point of view, the most significant feature of educational organization is, probably, that pertaining to the local community.

In spite of the almost all-embracing character of the standardizing influence in American life, it still remains true that local communities differ importantly with respect to their customary modes of functioning. In some sections of the country, for example, the situation seems entirely ripe for the incorporation of parent education within the established public-education system; in others it seems equally clear that the most effective form of organization is one which preserves the voluntary elements in the movement; in still others it seems both possible and advisable to combine these two types of organization. The ultimate goal, so far as financial support and general supervision is concerned, seems to be public rather than private ad-

ministration. This is, no doubt, the aim or direction of all people's movements; namely, to incorporate themselves finally within the recognized and stabilized cultural pattern. On the other hand, some leaders appear to see dangers in this development, especially if it arrives too quickly. They point to the maxim that whatever gets thoroughly incorporated in the politico-cultural scheme is thereby robbed of some of its lively essence, that is, of that form of vitality which resides only in voluntary effort. At this point sociological principles need to be invoked.

One of the surprising facts revealed in the organization of urban communities on behalf of parent education is to be found in the large number of existing agencies which have already pointed their programs towards education for home and family life. In one eastern city, for example, it was found that eighteen agencies believed themselves to be performing the tasks of parent or preparental education, either as a major objective or as marginal to other related aims. What is needed in such cases, obviously, is a clarification of functions. A coordinated program, a unified movement, can only proceed when all of its related parts are moving in the same direction, and when each is aware of the others' purposes. Schools (departments of home economics, civics, hygiene, etc.), clinics, social agencies, specialists (pediatricians, psychologists, psychiatrists, etc.), voluntary study groups, parent-teacher associations, mental-hygiene organizations, social-hygiene organizations—these and other types of community agencies are all focused in the direction of education for sex, marriage, and family life; consequently, they all impinge upon the program of parent education. Coordination and correlation of functions becomes, therefore, a primary consideration for urban communities, and again sociological guidance is needed.

As hinted above, one of the fascinating peculiarities of the parent-education movement lies in the necessary convergence of laymen, leaders, technologists, administrators,

and organizers. As the movement evolves one begins to see experimental possibilities of intense sociological significance. Our contemporary cultural adjustments cannot omit the services of the expert, the specialist, the technologist. But, a true educational movement is one which derives its powers, not merely by acquiescence or assent to technical advisers, but also by means of its own dynamic.⁴ But, how is this joining of democratic and technological processes to be achieved? One sees that if some sort of integration is possible in this sphere, new vistas of social progress will be opened. If, on the other hand, these two forces are not capable of conjoint planning and acting, the future of mechanized culture seems dark indeed. But, once more we have approached a problem which should be referred to sociological thinkers and experimenters.

SUMMARY

From the above sketch it appears that parent education becomes an appropriate object for consideration by sociologists from at least four points of view: (1) it possesses some of the characteristics of a true-folk or people's movement, and arises directly from felt needs, (2) it constitutes a challenge to those who believe that social experience is in and of itself latent with educational possibilities; (3) much of the learning of parents, as well as the need discovery, proceeds as a group phenomenon, and (4) parent education tends to become organized and offers important experimental opportunities, especially for those who look towards the democratic processes of the local community with hope. These four features of the movement do not, in any sense, exhaust the sociological implications of parent education, but they have appeared to me as appropriate for a brief essay.

⁴The so-called Five Year Plan of Soviet Russia, for example, derives its technical skills from experts, but its dynamic comes from leaders, and its ultimate success depends upon the people's drive.

THE NEED OF EDUCATION FOR LABOR

SPENCER MILLER

Some years before his death, Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor and the acknowledged leader of the labor movement in America, was asked to define labor's aspirations. "What does labor want?" asked Mr Gompers. "It wants the earth and the fulness thereof. There is nothing too precious, there is nothing too lofty, too beautiful, too ennobling unless it is within the scope and comprehension of labor's aspirations and wants. We want more schoolhouses and less jails, more books and less arsenals, more learning and less vice, more constant work and less crime, more leisure and less greed, more justice and less revenge—in fact, more of the opportunities to cultivate our better natures, to make manhood more noble, womanhood more beautiful, and childhood more happy and bright." Who could deny the elevation of spirit in this utterance or the broad basis of inclusiveness of this aim of labor? Upon such a foundation all men of good will should be able to agree.

The wants of labor arise, however, out of its needs. Indeed, Mr. Gompers reiterated over and over again that the labor movement was born not necessarily of an idea but of necessity; born in the beginning by hunger—hunger for food and shelter. "As time developed, new conditions arose and there was hunger for better shelter, hunger for recreation, music, art, literature—for all that goes to make this life a world better for our being in it, contributing our share of work and service in the solution of the great problems we have yet before us."

As one looks back over the pages of labor history in the United States for the past hundred years, the one need recognized by labor as clear and unmistakable from the very beginning has been the need for education. This need of education first arose with the extension of manhood

suffrage. Labor early realized that government by the people necessitated the education of the people. It sought, therefore, the extension of public educational facilities to all of the people. It was an effort on the part of labor to express its concern for the educational basis of our democratic life.

There were also made manifest certain needs for adult education at this early period. We find, for example, that the mechanics' institutes were established early in the last century, as a result of the activity on the part of labor to provide for the improvement in the intellectual condition of their fellow workers. Shortly after the first federated movement of wage earners was launched in 1828, there was a demand in Philadelphia for free libraries for the use and benefit of working men. During the entire nineteenth century, this need of labor for education was expressed in a variety of ways. But everywhere there was unwavering championship of the extension and enlargement of the facilities of our public educational institutions. This century of labor support runs continuously from the establishment of the school system early in the nineteenth century down to the enactment of the law for the establishment of a Federal Board for Vocational Education.

The need of labor for education today, however, arises out of a new set of circumstances which are implicit in our industrial civilization. It is a need of adult education—for reëducation to the machine age. An education which is appropriate to an industrial civilization must turn on the processes of industry. The rise of our modern industrialism has been made possible by science and the machine. They are instruments of man's historic achievement; they today stand out as the great imponderable facts of modern civilization. They constitute the basis upon which our modern western civilization rests and distinguish it from the civilizations which rest upon handicraft, commerce, or agriculture.

To understand something of the implications of the

machine age as they affect the industrial worker and as they give rise to a new need of labor for the development of adult education, let us consider briefly the way in which modern technology has transformed the very character of the work process. The history of American industry during the past three decades is in part a history of the phenomenal acceleration in per capita production. During the first two decades from 1899 to 1919 per capita production increased 11 per cent. From 1919 to 1927 production increased 53 per cent and the number of wage earners increased but 3 per cent, in spite of a population which increased over 10 per cent in the same period of time. From 1922 to 1929 there was an increase of 35 per cent in per capita production, with an actual shrinkage of 7 per cent in the number of workers employed. Even more startling is the fact that work which required 54 hours for a worker to perform in 1929 had, by the improved processes in 1931, required but 38 hours. In a word, during the past ten years the rise of mechanical power has been nearly four times as fast as the growth of population.

On the other hand, there are innumerable examples of the way in which the introduction of labor-saving devices has virtually revolutionized the industrial process. To take but two examples drawn from two great industries in this country, we find that the introduction of the machine into the mining of bituminous coal has, with the art of electricity, displaced a half-million miners. One of the reasons for the sorry plight in which the coal industry finds itself in this country is the tremendous overproduction of coal and the vast unemployment of the miners. A single instance from the electrical industry will suggest what the rate of displacement has been in that business: Prior to 1919, one man could make 75 electric light bulbs a day. An automatic machine introduced in 1920 produces 73,000 bulbs a day, thus causing the elimination of 994 men for each machine installed. There are thus not only problems

of revolutionary changes in technology which are profoundly altering the whole work process itself, but there is the complex problem of human relationships which arises out of the necessities of work itself

There is the other problem of the vast extension of leisure time for labor arising out of the progressive shortening of the working day and working week. There are in this country, according to the decennial census of 1930, upwards of 49 millions of people who are gainfully employed. Of this number some 26 per cent were engaged in manufacturing. At the present time it is generally estimated that 8 millions are wholly unemployed and equally as many are partially employed, which means that considerably more than 25 per cent of the industrial population of the country is at the present time idle or working on short time. It is also becoming increasingly evident that a considerable percentage of this total number that is now out of employment will never be reabsorbed into industry; that unemployment will be one of our national problems for a decade to come. Here is a new condition confronting labor. Leisure-time education is one possibility of giving balance to effort and some measure of satisfaction to labor. It has become clear that some provision must be made for a wider education for leisure time, but it should be recognized at once that leisure is not to be considered an antithesis of labor but an important part of the whole of the worker's life and experience. Leisure does provide an opportunity for the development of new skill for the wise use of leisure.

Labor likewise has an equally complicated problem of attempting those multitudinous adjustments made necessary by the rapid changes in our modern world. Our knowledge has increased so much more rapidly than our understanding that labor shares with other groups in the country that sense of confusion about its relationship to these changes. One of the reasons which lies at the base of the workers' education movement is an effort on the

part of labor to understand more adequately the world in which it functions. As one turns his eye upon the whole process of modern industrial relations he will observe the increasing part and place which statistics must play in the general knowledge and orderly development of labor relations. To prepare themselves adequately for this important function in industry, labor has found it necessary to make increasing provision for the education of its membership to deal with these problems in industrial relations. The old methods will not suffice. The new strategy of labor is built on a desire to make facts and education the instruments of its advance. The need of labor for education has thus been a developing need for a century. It has become more insistent today than ever before. For it is clear that an increasing responsibility for the maintenance of our civilization rests upon the forces of productive labor in the community. As the enterprise of civilization becomes more complex, the necessity for wider horizons becomes greater. Labor has recognized this need for education to adjust itself to the whole area of relationships which have arisen out of modern industrialism. It has developed a technique which is appropriate to the modern age, and adequate to the manifest needs of labor. Therein is to be found the heart and purpose of the modern workers' education movement.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

Due to the fact that a complete survey of research projects in adult education is now in progress but will not be available for publication until a later date, it has seemed best to devote this section to a summary of the activities of the American Association for Adult Education.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION

The American Association for Adult Education was organized in the spring of 1926. Its purpose, as set forth in its constitution, is as follows:

Its object shall be to promote the development and improvement of adult education in the United States and to cooperate with similar associations in other countries. It shall undertake to provide for the gathering and dissemination of information concerning adult-education aims and methods of work, to keep its members informed concerning the achievements and problems of adult education in other countries; to conduct a continuous study of work being done in this field and to publish from time to time the results of such study, to respond to public interest in adult education and particularly to cooperate with community group activities in this field, in the formation of study groups whether within or without regular educational institutions, and in other ways to cooperate with organizations and individuals engaged in educational work of this nature in the task of securing books and instructors; and to serve in such other ways as may be deemed advisable

The Association has consistently held to this statement of purpose. It "is not an operating organization; it has no program of instruction; it employs no teachers; it administers no teaching enterprise. Its whole effort has been directed at the problem of supplying a medium of exchange for teachers and administrators actually in contact with adults and their demands."

From the first, the Association has carried forward a twofold function: the exchange and dissemination of information on adult education and the sponsoring and conducting of researches and studies in this field.

The former has included direct contacts with more than 500 local, State, regional, national, and world organizations. These organizations include every phase of adult education from literary to purely cultural activities in both rural and urban areas. In the development of this function, the Association has consistently refrained from formulating a national "policy" and from propaganda. This attitude on the part of the Association has perhaps as much as any other single factor prevented adult education from falling into the common error of crystallization, devitalization, and eventual incarceration as a deceased American fad. "There is nothing approaching regimentation, or mass production, or even standardization in American adult education."¹

The second function, sponsoring and conducting studies, experiments, and researches in adult education, has been carried forward under a threefold administrative relationship: those studies conducted directly by the Association under its own field staff, as the survey of rural adult education; those conducted jointly by the Association and some cooperating agency, as the study of Chester County, Pennsylvania; and those conducted by other organizations and in which the Association has acted in a purely consultative capacity.

In the following summary of research activities, no attempt is made to differentiate on the basis of administrative procedure, but rather to indicate the major lines of such research and investigation

Alumni Education

A study of adult education for college and university graduates was undertaken by Wilfred B. Shaw of the University of Michigan after a conference with alumni secretaries, college presidents, and others. It resulted in the publication of *Alumni and Adult Education*. Since the publication of this report, the interest in alumni education

¹American Association for Adult Education, "Annual Report of the Director in behalf of the Executive Board, 1928-1929," *Journal of Adult Education*, 1, (June 1929), p. 332-350

has increased and the Association has been enabled to participate in a number of experiments in adult education, among them those at Lawrence College, Vassar College, Lafayette College, the University of Michigan, Ohio State University, Columbia University, and Stevens Institute of Technology.

Unemployment and Adult Education²

A symposium on technological unemployment; *i.e.*, unemployment caused by the displacement of men and women in industry through the introduction of labor-saving devices. Previous to the publication of the symposium, a meeting of educators and economists was held to discuss the problem.

The Radio and Adult Education

The findings of a study of the place of radio in education, made for the Association by Levering Tyson, were published under the title *Education Tunes In*. The report resulted in the formation of the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, under the direction of Mr. Tyson. Its purpose is to serve as a clearing house of information about the radio in education, to gather material on the subject, and to promote better educational programs.

Rural Adult Education

A study of the adaptability of adult education to rural life, by John D. Willard, resulted in the publication of *A Preliminary Inquiry Into Rural Adult Education*. The final report on this subject is in preparation but will be delayed by the unfortunate death of Mr. Willard.

The Little Theater and Adult Education

Kenneth Macgowan made a survey of the little theaters of the United States which resulted in the publication of *Footlights Across America*. In this book Mr. Macgowan recommends that a national little-theater council be estab-

²See Book Review section, this issue

lished. The economic depression retarded the movement to form such a council, but a meeting held in Chicago in 1931 resulted in the formation of the National Little Theatre Conference. The Conference met again in February 1932 to outline a plan of rendering certain national services to little-theater groups.

Studies of Ability of Adults to Learn

E. L. Thorndike, of Teachers College, Columbia University, and his associates at the Institute of Educational Research made a comprehensive study of the ability of adults to learn. The study is published under the title of *Adult Learning* as one of the series of "Studies in Adult Education." Dr. Thorndike is now conducting a study which will deal with the "fundamentals of interest and motive—the forces which make people want to learn and to excel, which make them willing to change their habits and points of view, which determine their cravings and ideals."

In South Carolina an investigation is being made of the ability of adult illiterates to learn, under the direction of William S. Gray, of the University of Chicago, and Wil Lou Gray, of South Carolina.

University Correspondence Instruction

A study of university correspondence instruction, conducted under the auspices of the University of Chicago by W. S. Bittner, is soon to be published. The study deals chiefly with the institutions that are members of the National University Extension Association.

Adult Reading

Several studies of adult reading and reading habits in which the Association has participated have been made.

A joint committee composed of members of the Association and the American Library Association was formed. As a result of the activities of this committee, *The Reading Interests and Habits of Adults*, by William S. Gray and

Ruth Munroe, was prepared and published. The committee also has sponsored the following: a study of a technique for determining reading interests and habits of groups of adults made under the auspices of the University of Chicago; a study also made under the auspices of that university to develop a scale of reading paragraphs by which librarians may determine quickly the general level of reading material which adults who are not facile readers can read with ease and comprehension.

Education in Prisons^a

The Education of Adult Prisoners, prepared for the National Society of Penal Information by Austin H. MacCormick, was published recently. The book contains a survey and a program for prison education.

International Adult Education

The Association has been active in the affairs of the World Association for Adult Education since the founding of that Association. The American Association was instrumental in making possible the publication of the International Handbook of Adult Education. The Director during the last year has served as the American representative on the Executive Committee of the Association.

The Association has also coöperated with the British Institute for Adult Education, the Chinese Mass Education Movement, the workers' education movement in Australia, New Zealand, and Canada, and many other adult-education enterprises in foreign countries.

Education of Foreign Born

The Association has been in close touch with the Foreign Language Information Service, the Council on Adult Education for the Foreign Born, of New York, and other organizations having to do with the education of the foreign born. The Foreign Language Information Service has

^aSee Book Review section, this issue

provided education guidance for a dozen or more foreign-language organizations.

Workers Education and Workers in Industry

The Association has cooperated with the Workers Education Bureau, the Affiliated Summer Schools for Women Workers in Industry, the Art Workshop in New York City, the Labor Temple School, and other organizations and institutions devoted to workers' education.

A study is being made for the Association by Nathaniel Peffer of education in industry and for industry. The utilization by industry of the educational facilities provided by public and private funds will be considered in the study.

Under the direction of Frank W. Lorimer, the Brooklyn Conference on Adult Education has made a survey of adult groups in various industries in Brooklyn.⁴

Local Organizations

The organization of communities for adult-education activity has been encouraged. The Association has cooperated with the Civic Federation of Dallas, the Dallas Institute for Social Education, the Cleveland Adult Education Association, the New York Conference on Adult Education, the Adult Education Council of Chicago, the Nashville Council on Adult Education, and other community organizations.

The Association was instrumental in instigating a county-wide adult-education demonstration in Chester County, Pennsylvania. The work is now being carried on by the Chester County Health and Welfare Council.

Adult Education in the Public Schools

The Chairman of the Association and two members of the executive board hold membership on the National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life of the National Education Association. The Commission's primary

⁴See Book Review section, this issue, *The Making of Adult Minds in a Metropolitan Area*

function is to promote the idea of adult education among the members of the N. E. A. and to invite them to institute various State and local experiments.

Courses in Adult Education

A six weeks' summer course in adult education has been given under the joint auspices of the college and the Association at Teachers College, Columbia University, for the past two years. Summer-session courses in adult education are also being given in other educational institutions.

The Association has also been closely concerned with training courses for teachers of adult classes, and experimental and demonstration classes in adult education carried on by the People's Institute of New York.

Other Projects

Space does not permit listing in detail other projects in which the Association has participated. The following notes, read in conjunction with the detailed list, will suggest the variety of activities included in the program of the Association:

A study of the problems of the education of the blind by the University of Kansas

A study of adjustment problems of employed boys, made by the National Junior Personnel Service

A study of urban influences on higher education in England and the United States by Parke R. Kolbe, which resulted in the publication of a book on the subject

A study by the Young Men's Christian Association of educational needs and facilities in a small city (Meriden, Connecticut)

A series of experiments by the Young Women's Christian Association involving the application of modern educational principles to groups of young business women

Promoting parent education by cooperating with the National Council of Parent Education, the United Parents Association, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and similar organizations

Encouraging the establishment of "opportunity" schools by participating in the work of the Campbell Folk School and the Pocono People's College.

Publications of the Association

During the first two and a half years of its existence the Association issued occasional bulletins. Volume I, Number 1, of the *Journal of Adult Education* appeared in 1929. Since that time it has been published four times a year. The journal contains articles on adult education and allied fields of thought, discussions of methods and principles, news, notes, and book reviews.

In addition to the journal, leaflets and broadsides describing the work of the Association, reprints of articles from the journal, and also the reports of studies have been published.⁸

MORSE A. CARTWRIGHT

DEFINITION OF FELT NEEDS OF SELECTED ADULT GROUPS IN A COMMUNITY AS A POINT OF DEPARTURE IN ADULT EDUCATION⁹

This study was undertaken by the General Education Service staff of the National Council of the Y. M. C. A. under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. The instigation of the study was this: For years Y. M. C. A. secretaries have been determining adult-education programs without validated assumptions of the needs, interests, or activities of adults and without sufficient consideration of educational outlets (whether adequate or not) already available in the community.

As originally undertaken, then, the intention of the study was to determine points of departure in formulating adult-education programs. Not to indicate what should be done by way of program nor even what could be done, but rather to delineate some characteristics of groups

⁸See Book Review section, this issue, for complete statement of reports published in book form in "Studies in Adult Education."

⁹This statement has been furnished through the courtesy of the National Council of the Y. M. C. A. by Miss Ruth Kotinsky, research assistant.

within the community which would serve as guides to thinking in the problem of their further education.

To this end a data-gathering instrument was devised, and approximately 2,000 of these were distributed and filled in in Meriden, Connecticut (a community selected by criteria of accessibility and representativeness). This instrument, known as an "interest finder," requests six types of material:

1. Personal data
2. Degree of participation in activities now available in the community. The list classifies the activities found under way in an actual canvass of the community
3. Desire for greater participation in activities now available in the community
4. Present use of free time (on Friday, Saturday, and Sunday).
5. Desired free-time activities (anticipated use of an hypothetical Wednesday afternoon holiday)
6. Degree of interest in 152 topics. These topics are an amplification of the 117 items used by Waples and Tyler in their study of *What People Want to Read About*. The 117 items cover all the topics in the *Readers Digest* and *Readers Guide* for a period of years, and are as varied and reliable as a longer and more specific list. They are sufficiently reliable for prediction for groups numbering sixty, homogeneous as to sex, occupation, and previous education

Further possible outcomes of the study as now foreseen include the following:

- 1 The relationship of certain personal characteristics like marital status, parenthood, age, vocation, education to:
 - a) Interests
 - b) Participation in available group activities
 - c) Desire for further such participation
 - d) Present use of free time
 - e) Aspirations in the use of further free time if available.

2. Clue to inadequacy in the operation of present group-activity facilities arrived at through comparison of present participation with desired participations

3. Some relationships between unorganized and organized activities arrived at through comparison of the use of free time with participations in group activities

4. Identification of unsatisfied interests in present free time arrived at through comparison of the present use of free time with desired uses of further free time

5. The relationship of participations like church going, community leadership, etc., to such types of interest like the place of religion in the modern world or social progress, etc.

6. The possibility of obtaining a picture of a community in relation to such items as those represented on the blank once the reliability, validity, and sampling problems are satisfactorily solved

The cooperation of the community in the undertaking was not entirely incidental to the mechanics of distributing the blanks and having them filled in. One of the original intentions of the undertaking was to use the venture as a tryout for the possibilities of such an organization as the Y. M. C. A. in mobilizing action on adult education in a typical industrial community. Actually, at the beginning of the study it was the expressed opinion of community leaders that available activities would take care of all truly interested persons. The only possible need foreseen lay in the direction of outdoor physical recreational facilities. With the earliest analysis of the data at hand (major interests of vocational groups homogeneous as to sex and relatively homogeneous as to previous education) these same community leaders took the initiative in attempting to provide facilities for the expression of interests indicated. The problem of guiding the educational thinking of planning groups now becomes uppermost.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY is changing its book-review policy, as you will note in glancing through the book reviews in the current issue. Hereafter, THE JOURNAL will publish monthly a list of books received. It will carry reviews of only such books as in the judgment of the reviewers (in all cases authorities in the field involved) make some contribution to their respective fields. Reviews will be brief and expository rather than critical.

The reasons for this change in policy are two. In the first place, THE JOURNAL deals with professional literature and has a professional audience. Numerous letters from readers have requested that reviews give a more complete account of the content of the books reviewed—that reviews give information to the reader rather than a chance for self-expression to the reviewer. In the second place, THE JOURNAL will find it possible to review many more books, and all books promptly (avoiding the delay so characteristic of professional journals).

STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION

New York. The Macmillan Company

Libraries and Adult Education, American Library Association, 1926, 284 pages

Educational Opportunities for Young Workers, by Owen D. Evans, 1926, xi+380 pages.

The University Afield, by Alfred L. Hall-Quest, 1926, xvi+292 pages.

Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauquas, by John S. Noffsinger, 1926, vi+145 pages.

New Schools for Older Students, by Nathaniel Pfeffer, 1926, 250 pages.

Urban Influences on Higher Education in England and the United States, by Parke R. Kolbe, 1928, viii+254 pages

Adult Learning, by Edward L. Thorndike, 1928, x+335 pages

The Reading Interests and Habits of Adults, by William S. Gray and Ruth Munroe, 1929, xiii+305 pages

Additional volumes in preparation.

To sense the significance of a comparatively new movement in education, to view it in all of its multifarious aspects, and to lay a foundation for its future development through a series of factual studies

is a monumental contribution. Such a contribution has been and is being made through the "Studies in Adult Education" undertaken in connection with the general effort which the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the American Association for Adult Education are making towards the improved education of adults in the United States.

Each volume presents factual data within its own field, presenting such data, however, not as final and authoritative but as representative and suggestive. Each is a source book of information, giving a brief history of the movements treated, the extent of the work being done, and the various types of programs being conducted. Continual references to other studies and extensive bibliographies add still further to the value of each of the studies in the series.

However, perhaps even more important than their informational content is their contribution to the development of a basic philosophy of adult education not as an agency for supplementing defective regular education, but rather, "based on a recognition of the great truth that education is a lifelong process, and that the university graduate, as well as the man of little schooling, is in constant need of further training, inspiration, and mental growth . . . that the real development of the individual lies in the independent effort of later years . . . Adult education finds its truest and highest level when the hunger for knowledge and expression awakens in the hearts of men and women."

The Making of Adult Minds in a Metropolitan Area, by FRANK LORIMER, director of Research of the Brooklyn Conference on Adult Education. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 245 pages.

This volume is a presentation of the work and findings of the Brooklyn Conference on Adult Education. While the study was made in Brooklyn, the findings are probably applicable to any metropolitan area. Special attention is given to education for commercial vocations, assimilation of foreign peoples, vocational guidance, development of culture, parenthood, and understanding of social problems. The author discusses and implies the larger aspects of the development of group culture, public opinion, and interests, juvenile as well as adult. Needs and suggested solutions have a place.

Education in Industry, by NATHANIEL PEPPER. New York: The Macmillan Company, to be published in April.

In a modern industrial corporation the relation of employer to employee is no longer simply that of boss to hired man. The firm of today is rather more paternalistic in its attitude towards its people. There are company clubs and bulletins, company lunchrooms, company outings, and educational opportunities offered by the company to its workers. Just what is the education so offered. This book is a study in cross section of such efforts. It is both a factual presentation of

what has been done by a number of large industrial firms, and in some measure an appraisal of their work. The whole inquiry shows clearly what are the possibilities of education for workers, and what has already been accomplished in that direction.

Unemployment and Adult Education, A Symposium, edited by MORSE A. CARTWRIGHT. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1931, 63 pages.

The new movement for adult education in the United States has received renewed impetus as a result of the present long depression which has swelled the number of the unemployed. The economist and the other social theorists are not agreed on the causes of the depression but they speak with one voice in contending that unemployment has raised a number of serious problems of education and reeducation. This symposium is a result of a recent conference by the above mentioned organization. A number of individuals previously interested in the problems of adult education met, conferred, and pooled their ideas and viewpoints on the nature, the magnitude, the responsibility for the educational aspects of "technological unemployment." This series of articles is worthy of the careful reading by those interested in this new field of education.

World Workers' Educational Movements, by MARIUS HANSOME. New York: Columbia University Press, 1931, 594 pages.

That adults are going to schools of one kind or another is nothing new to most students of education but that workers in various parts of the world are going to schools for instruction in labor union, political, consumer-coöperative, and cultural affairs is new to most students of education. Up to the time of appearance of Dr. Hansome's book the story of workers' education was to be found only in scattered material such as in labor publications, in foreign books, in yearbooks, and in other sources not conveniently available. Among the problems he discusses in connection with workers' education are the aims and purposes, curricula, methods of teaching, the student and teaching population, administration and control.

The Education of Adult Prisoners, by AUSTIN H. MACCORMICK. New York: The National Society of Penal Information, 1931, 456 pages.

MacCormick begins his book with a statement of the problem of adult education in penal institutions. His position is that it is necessary, in order to rehabilitate these individuals, to fulfill certain inadequacies which the individual in his upbringing has escaped. He stresses the overemphasis on the moral education which was so characteristic in work of this type formerly and which is only too prevalent today.

In an interesting chapter, the student body is discussed from many angles, with special emphasis given to antecedents and mental levels. Obviously, there is no student body which is more heterogeneous and to which the entrance requirements are as varied. The problem must be tackled from the angle of individualized education. The rest of the volume is a survey of such educational work as is found in institutions which the author has investigated and evaluated.

Racial Factors in American Industry, by HERMAN FELDMAN. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931, xiv+318 pages.

This volume is based in part on a study made by *The Inquiry* under the direction of Bruno Lasker with a foreword by Raymond B. Fosdick. The book is divided into three parts: an introduction, facts and interpretations, and social and industrial remedies. The racial factors considered are limited to the Negro, the Chinese, Japanese, Filipino, Mexican, Indian, and certain European immigrant groups. The author believes that racial adjustments can be achieved in part by community programs, in part by industrial policies, and in part by intelligent application of management technique to racial problems.

Is it Safe to Work? by EDISON L. BOWERS. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930, 229 pages.

In his interesting and comprehensive treatment of industrial accidents Mr. Bowers answers three important questions. First, why must thousands of American workmen be killed and injured in industry each year when 75 per cent or more of all accidents could be avoided? Second, why should we permit our great industrial system to function so inefficiently, when a few employers in each line of production have shown that goods can be produced profitably without the killing and maiming of workers? Third, why is it that we permit so many workmen to be killed each year in industry when we have such a hatred for war? In answering these questions the author points out the gross injustices in our present workmen's compensation system and how impossible it has become to present a scientific treatment of the injury problem because of the conditions surrounding the passage and administration of accident, compensation, and vocational rehabilitation legislation.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Body Mechanics: Education and Practice. Publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York: The Century Company

Change of Interests with Age, by STRONG. California. Stanford University Press.

Contemporary Sociology, by BOGARDUS. Los Angeles: The University of Southern California Press.

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NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The Carnegie Corporation of New York, through the American Association for Adult Education, has made a grant of \$6,000 with which an experiment in adult education as a community activity will be made at Radburn, New Jersey, established in 1929. It has a population of about 1,200, consisting for the most part of the families of young professional and business men. Courses scheduled and the instructors are: International Affairs, Dr. Clyde Eagleton, lecturer for the International Relations Club; Contemporary Poetry and Drama, Dr. Charles H. Whitman, of Rutgers University; Handicrafts, Olsen Bowers, of the Henry Street Settlement; Home Decoration, Mrs. Ruth Tregenza, of Columbia University; Child Study, Mrs. Aletha M. Coffman and Mrs. Lillian Cushman Brown; Music Appreciation, Kenneth F. Damon, of Columbia University; Languages (German and French), Mrs. Annie H. Zachman and Mrs. Patricia B. Russell.

Dr. John D. Willard, a member of the faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University, died on December 22 at the age of forty-six years. Dr. Willard was appointed professor of education of the Schuff Foundation at Teachers College last July and divided his time between teaching and research as a member of the staff of the American Association for Adult Education.

The third annual conference of the Eastern Association for Extension Education will be held at the Hotel Berkeley-Carteret, Asbury Park, New Jersey, on April 3, 4, and 5. The general topic will center around the administrative aspects of extension education. The president of the association is Professor A. Broderick Cohen of Hunter College and the secretary is Mr. Francis J. Brown of the School of Education, New York University.

An institute of adult education will be held in Spokane, Washington, April 6, 7, and 8, 1932, under the auspices of the Inland Empire Education Association, an organization which draws its membership from Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington.

The institute will be conducted in round tables, discussion groups from the various agencies of formal and informal adult education whose leaders, national and local, will be in attendance.

The adult-education movement in its several aspects, its agencies, methods, purposes, instruments, and trends will present the problems the institute will consider.

The committee of the Inland Empire Education Association in charge of calling the institute are Principal James A. Burke of Spokane, Washington, Superintendent L. C. Robinson of Sandpoint, Idaho, and the chairman, Dean Rhoda M. White, West 4004 Queen Avenue, Spokane, Washington.

A meeting under the auspices of the Daniel Guggenheim Fund Committee on Elementary and Secondary Aeronautical Education coincident with the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association was held on Tuesday, February 23, at

2.15 p m, at the Hotel Washington, Washington, D C. Dr John W Withers of New York University presided as chairman of the committee Addresses were delivered by the Hon. Hiram Bingham, United States Senator from Connecticut, and Mr. Joseph S. Marriott, Chief of the Inspection Service for the Aeronautics Branch of the United States Department of Commerce, and a general discussion from the floor was led by Mr Roland H Spaulding, specialist in aeronautical education for this committee.

The Fifth Annual Conference of Committees of the International Narcotic Education Association of the World Narcotic Defense Association met in the McAlpin Hotel, New York, on February 18 and 19. The general theme of the meeting was "Waging War upon the Illicit Narcotic Drug Traffic." The last session on Friday afternoon at which Dr E George Payne presided was given over to a discussion of "The Part of Education in the Narcotic Drug War" Addresses were given by Dr. Payne on "The Future of Narcotic Education in Europe," and Mr. Francis J. Brown on "The Future of Narcotic Education in America." Other addresses at this session were given by Mr John I Cotter and Dr. Arthur La Roe.

Mr John D. Moffett, who for a number of years had been Assistant Director of Evening Schools, New York City, died in December The adult-education movement lost one of its valued leaders in the passing of Dr Moffett.

The National Recreation Association is holding its first world congress on recreation in Los Angeles, July 23 to 29, just prior to the Olympic Games which are being held in that city this year President Hoover has accepted the honorary presidency of the congress and the State Department of the Federal Government has issued invitations to the diplomatic offices of the various countries Delegates from twenty-two countries have already been designated. This is to be truly another international conference unifying the interest of all the peoples in wholesome play and recreation in the recognition that health and happiness and character development are in a large measure dependent upon the wholesome enjoyment of some form of recreational activity.

The Interstate Conference for the Discussion of Common Problems of Teacher Education will hold its annual meeting at the Faculty Club, Columbia University, April 5 The morning session will be given over to a discussion of the question "To what extent shall subject matter be professionalized?", the afternoon meeting to "What shall be the basis of selective admission?"

The group comprises deans and heads of departments of education of colleges and universities in the North-Atlantic section Dr. A R Brubacher, Albany State Teachers College, is president, Mr Francis J Brown, School of Education, New York University, is secretary of the organization.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Mr Francis J Brown received his A.B. from the University of Iowa in 1918 and his A.M. from Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1923. He is the author of *Objective Measurement of Character, an Experimental Study*, *The Value of Incentives in Education*; *The Free Time Reading Interests of High School Students*; and *An Evaluation of Extra-mural Courses*.

Dr. Kenyon L Butterfield received his Sc B. from Michigan Agricultural College, A.M. from University of Michigan, and LL.D. from Amherst and Rhode Island State. At present, he is counselor on rural work for the International Missionary Council.

Mr. Morse A Cartwright received his Sc B. from the University of California in 1912 and pursued graduate study in the School of Jurisprudence in that institution from 1912 to 1913. Since 1926 he has been director of the American Association for Adult Education.

Dr. A. Caswell Ellis received his A.B. from the University of North Carolina, his Ph.D. from Clark University, and attended the University of Berlin as a graduate student. He was adjunct professor of pedagogy, the University of Texas, 1897-1903; associate professor of the science and art of education, 1903-1908; professor of the philosophy of education, 1908-1926; director of extension department, 1911-1913 and 1914-1916. Director, Cleveland College of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, since 1926.

Mr Eduard C Lindeman is professor of philosophy at the New York School of Social Work; lecturer at the New School for Social Research, consultant for the National Council of Parent Education; chairman of the Committee on Method of the World Association for Adult Education; and associate editor of the *Journal of Adult Education*.

Mr. Frank Lorimer is a Union Seminary graduate. He studied philosophy and psychology at Columbia University, working under the direction of Professor John Dewey. He received his doctoral degree in 1929.

Professor Norman C Miller graduated from the University of Michigan with a bachelor of mechanical engineering degree. He received his Sc.M. from Pennsylvania State College. Professor Miller has been director of University Extension Division, Rutgers University, since its organization in 1925.

Mr Spencer Miller, Jr., is the secretary of the Workers Education Bureau of America. Mr. Miller is one of the most widely known leaders in the field of the adult-education movement. During the past year, Mr. Miller was a delegate to the World Conference on Adult Education at Vienna, Austria, and to the World Social Economic Congress at Amsterdam, Holland.

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EDITORIAL

Educational sociology, while dealing essentially with educational data, scientifically conceived and evaluated, also involves the consideration of the data applied in practice and particularly an evaluation of practice in the light of research in the field. Therefore, the editors of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY are eager to present striking practices which represent programs sociologically conceived and intelligently carried out.

With this purpose in mind we have at times presented in these columns programs of character education, health education, narcotic education, child guidance, and the like, because the practical programs in these fields represent the application of the science of educational sociology at its best. In this issue we are presenting a study of the field service of a university in the continued education of the public-school staff. Professor Ned H. Dearborn, a specialist in this field, is sponsor for this issue and has presented a discussion of the purposes of such a service in so effective a manner that we quote from him as follows:

Public education is a social institution in this country. Prolonged and systematic education has long been recognized as an essential in the development of a democratic society, its importance to social progress is no longer questioned. Because American people have so much faith in

systematic education they spend millions of dollars annually in the support of public schools. By far the most important single factor in the scheme of American public education is the teacher. The term teacher is used here to include any professional worker in the field of education. The education of teachers has been given public recognition and support for nearly a century. Teacher education is a matter of the utmost importance to the American people in view of the social significance of public education to a democratic form of society and in view of the fact that our millions of public-school teachers are also members of our society.

The education of teachers extends far beyond the boundaries of mere pedagogy. It is not enough to think only of the vocational aspects of teacher education. To be satisfied with nothing more than good craftsmanship is belittling the high purposes of the profession of teaching. In a very real sense a teacher is the guardian of our social order, he is always in the spotlight of public scrutiny; he is judged by the influence he exerts in the development of youth, morally, intellectually, and physically; and his values are also assessed in terms of the nature and amount of his active participation in the important affairs of life outside the school. The field of education is unsurpassed in its opportunity to serve humanity. The privileges and responsibilities of teachers in rendering professional service to social progress are accompanied, it should be remembered, by the privileges and responsibilities of teachers in the advancement of human welfare through participation in nonprofessional community activities. Parallels to this double obligation can be found in other walks of life. The profession of law gives a large number of men and women to prominent public service. It is true that those chosen for public service have been proficient in their vocation, but in addition they have shown ability to solve problems in other fields, problems not limited to the interests of single clients. Their profession lends itself to wide and varied contacts with life. The medical profession has

similar opportunities to study human nature. A physician must, of course, be a successful technician but his influence is far more extensive if he is the confidant of his patients on all matters and if he is an active, public-spirited man. So the illustrations might be multiplied. The teacher who is not a student of human nature and public affairs fails to measure up to the responsibilities of the profession and neglects the obligations resting on all educators to contribute whenever, wherever, and however possible to the advancement of civilization. The education of teachers, therefore, falls into two general divisions; namely, education for professional service and education for life outside the vocational demands made on teachers

The first function of a program of teacher education is to provide a reasonable mastery of the subject matter to be used and of related subject matter. This statement smacks of triteness and a charge of guilt could be sustained were it not for the last phrase of the sentence. Exact knowledge of a given field of learning is essential but it must not be ritualistic nor catechetical. A facility in the use of pertinent information is desirable but factual knowledge which lacks an acquaintanceship with causes and results or, putting the matter in another way, which neglects interpretation is far below a desirable standard. A teacher of English literature in a high school, for example, will have a respectable task to perform in securing an acceptable survey knowledge (acceptable from the standpoint of thorough scholarship) of English prose and poetry to say nothing of plumbing the depths of a given period or type of either. Nevertheless, the ideal of scholarship must obtain. Not only must the high-school teacher in the field of English literature master English literature but he should also know American, French, German, Italian, Russian, Scandinavian, and other great literatures. There are similarities and contrasts to be drawn from these fields which will aid him as a teacher of English literature. Furthermore, he should know the social, political, and economic history of the people whose literature he is helping

high-school students enjoy and understand. In this connection science, philosophy, and religion must not be neglected. Briefly, the demands upon a teacher in any field require a broad and deep reservoir of knowledge which may serve not only its regular daily needs as a classroom teacher but which may be used as an emergency supply of information and understanding. Parallelism, comparison, and contrast are effective in their proper time and place in teaching. Hence, the need for a reasonable mastery of related subject matter in addition to scholarship in a given field of knowledge.

The second function of teacher education is to assist each prospective teacher in the formulation of a definite philosophy of education. This is, after all, a practical application of a philosophy of life to a special field of service. Human beings are guided, even though unconsciously, by some standards of conduct. He who knows his purposes, outlines a plan of action, and executes a program of daily conduct in terms of his plans and purposes achieves his goal. If the ways and means are worthy then he, as a contributor to the advancement of civilization, becomes a ruling power. He is listed among the outstanding characters of history. Statesmen, jurists, authors, philosophers, scientists, painters, sculptors, physicians, and teachers comprise the bulk of humanity's great leaders. Fortuitous circumstances, opportunities, and fate fail to explain the eminence of any of the great figures in human history. On the contrary their lives were directed by worthy purposes, distinguished by definite plans, and made effective by an efficient program of action. Education, as the fundamental basis of social progress, must have that kind of leadership and the followership must have an intelligent appreciation of the purposes, plans, and programs advocated by the leaders. Hence the importance of a definite philosophy of life and of its application to the field of education.

The third function is to provide a thorough understanding of child nature. Scholasticism is giving way to hu-

manism. The humanism of today is not empty sentiment. It is a recognition of individual rights and responsibilities. It calls for functional learning in the real world in which human beings live. So in addition to knowing the world in which we have our being it becomes necessary to know the human material with which we hope to make today or tomorrow better than yesterday. In pedagogical parlance this knowledge of child nature is called educational psychology. The teacher must understand the physical, mental, and emotional aspects of child development if stimulation, encouragement, and guidance are to be effective in child growth.

The fourth function is development of powers of evaluation. This is nothing more or less than the application of a philosophy of life or of a philosophy of education to the task at hand. Knowing materials and child nature, and possessing a working philosophy of life, the teacher then faces the obligations of selection. What subject matter will function now or later (or now and later)? How can it be organized most usefully? What teaching methods will be most effective? When shall a child be introduced to this, that, or the other? To what extent shall repetition occur? What of overlapping? Of coordination or integration? Where shall fact finding or memorization leave off and interpretation begin? What about problem solving? Habit formation? Teaching is far more than what to do or how to do it. It involves the why of all things. Thus curriculum construction and methods of teaching become something more than routine matters. "Tricks of the trade" is not enough. Nothing short of broad and deep and extensive education can be acceptable.

The fifth function of teacher education is ethical training. This phase of education is based on ideals of conduct concerned with three relationships: (1) those among members of the profession, (2) those between teachers and parents and other laymen, and (3) those between teachers and pupils. Rumor has it that a certain position will be vacant soon. What should the eager and ambitious appli-

cant for that position do in this case? A parent raises some doubt regarding the values of a certain phase of the school program. How should the teacher react to this criticism? A pupil may voice strong opposition to the viewpoint expressed by the teacher or found in a textbook. What is the ethical procedure for the teacher to follow? Unfortunately, home education, active participation in community affairs, or observation of professional workers in other fields do not always enable the prospective teacher to decide wisely in such cases. "Common sense" is not always a reliable guide. Where does the responsibility lie to provide instruction of this kind? Clearly in programs of teacher education. Thus, as there is a code among gentlemen, ethical standards in other professions, and ideals of conduct for the everyday world, there must be an ethical code for the profession of teaching. It must be founded on ideals consciously formulated and on habits of action grounded in reflections and practice.

The sixth and last function in this classification of teacher education is education for life outside the classroom. It is related to the second of the two general classifications on teacher education mentioned earlier in this chapter. The five points mentioned above relate to the vocational interests of teachers. There are, however, many obligations that make their demands in the nonvocational or avocational life of teachers. Social life in homes, community problems, economic, political, and social questions that reach beyond neighborhood or local community boundaries—all of these call for wide information, varied and many intellectual interests, skillful exercise of well-developed habits, and a sense of responsibility as vital units in a social order. Education for teaching that neglects these demands falls short of the mark. True professional education and nonvocational education have mutual values for the purposes of each, but these purposes will be realized more effectively if the program of teacher education sets up one group of studies directed primarily to the ends of one and another group to the ends of the other. Further-

more, the teacher who establishes himself as a valuable member of society, apart from his profession, commands a degree of respect, admiration, esteem, and confidence that inevitably wins continued and substantial lay support for organized education. His work as a teacher, therefore, becomes increasingly effective as he merits the badge of worthy community membership.

The foregoing statements of function presuppose a program of continuous education for teachers irrespective of the length of the pre-service program of education. Both pre-service and in-service education follow the lines of professional and nonvocational education in the total educational needs of any teacher. From the standpoint of professional education, it is clear even to the casual observer of the educational process that the science of education is changing so rapidly, periodic and systematic attempts to keep abreast of the times are essential to the professional life of the alert teacher. On the side of non-vocational education, it is also clear that the development of intellectual interests, the extension of the boundaries of knowledge, and the increased understanding of the work in which we live have no end. Hence the need for a program of in-service teacher education that is continuous and is coordinate with the pre-service program. Preliminary education and preparation of those in service are inseparable. A program of teacher education so conceived has no end.

THE SCOPE AND FUNCTION OF A SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

JOHN W. WITHERS

A school of education which is an integral part of a great university should be a professional school of the highest order on a par with the best professional schools of law, medicine, etc. Like these professional schools, it is concerned with the extension of knowledge and the improvement of service in one of the great fundamental interests of modern life. As a primary social concern education is now regarded and is destined to be increasingly regarded as of equal importance with the administration of justice and the promotion of public health.

The direct annual cost of education, both public and private, to the people of the United States is now well over two and one-half billions of dollars, and the total amount invested in educational institutions of all sorts is greater than the combined investment in the ten largest industries in the United States.

The field of service of a school of education is, therefore, the professional study and improvement of education as one of the fundamental interests with which modern life is concerned. The scope of its professional responsibility is the whole field of education, in school and out of school, from the lowest level to the highest level, and from the beginning of life to the end of life, as an individual concern and as a community concern. The school of education, therefore, is vastly more than a school of methods concerned merely with specialized techniques involved in the successful teaching of children in the elementary and secondary schools.

A school of education is not a college or a graduate school of arts and sciences. Its primary concern is not merely the extension of knowledge and the promotion of culture for their own sake. It is concerned with a philosophy of life and the evaluation of human interests, activi-

ties, and appreciations, with truth and the methods by which truth is attained, but not solely with truth considered merely as an end in itself. It is primarily interested in truth as a reliable means for the attainment of the values that are regarded as fundamental and essential.

It is evident, therefore, that an institution having such functions and responsibilities must concern itself with the meaning and trends of modern life in all of its major interests if it is to have any reliable and worth-while conception of the part which education is playing and should play. It is not concerned merely with how education should be taught; it is also concerned with what should be taught, and why it should be taught. It endeavors to understand the nature, possibilities, and limitations of individuals as educable beings, and the nature and extent of those social pressures, both outside and inside the established institutions of education, that bring about the reconstruction and the progressive adaptation and improvement of them.

In colleges and also in graduate schools of arts and sciences the extension of knowledge and the discovery and dissemination of truth are the matters of primary concern. But education as we are concerned with it in the school of education is something of even greater importance. As Albert Guerard has said in a recent issue of *Scribner's*, "Science is spiritually bankrupt in the midst of its material triumph, for science lends her services to the war-monger, the racketeer, the concocter of fiendish drugs as serenely as to the humanitarian. We have raised the question whether the good in its traditional sense be invariably true. We are pretty certain that the true is frequently not good at all."

The truth has, of course, direct as well as indirect value. It satisfies one of the fundamental hungers of human life: the hunger to know, the desire to know, and the urge to discover. This is an end most worthy in itself and one that fully justifies the enormous expenditure of time, energy, and money now devoted to research in the United States, outside as well as inside our colleges and universities.

The school of education is deeply interested in this aspect of the value of truth. The extension of truth in this sense is, for it, a vital concern, but not its chief concern. Its chief interest is in the uses to which truth, both new and old, may be put, the values that may be realized through its application, and the nature and relative importance of these values. It is deeply interested in the discovery of new truth concerning all the means, processes, agencies, and results of education; but its primary interest is in the practical improvement of these instruments, processes, and results. In this sense truth is an instrument to be used, not an end in itself. It is, therefore, a relative matter, both in its nature and in the manner of its application. It is an instrument that needs to be adjusted to the purposes which are to be realized through its practical use. As a reliable instrument it has a wider application, sometimes, than others. Even in the physical sciences, truth as a useful instrument is relative to the degree of refinement involved in the attempt to apply it. The refinements that are now possible in the study of radiation show clearly that the Newtonian theory of gravitation is not a law in the sense that it is universally true of the physical world as science now reveals it. Shall we say, then, that this law must be discarded because it is untrue? Is it not in fact still true, reliable, and valuable in dealing with the physical world within the degree of refinement of observation with which all but a very few persons in the world are practically concerned? Let it not be forgotten that the planet Neptune was discovered, its existence made known, and its exact location mathematically determined by the use of this law before that planet was actually seen through a telescope by any human being.

Again, the revelations of modern physics show that space is not, apparently, actually Euclidian, and that the geometry of Euclid based upon the use of the Euclidian theory of parallel lines is probably not absolutely true of reality. Shall we, then, cease to teach Euclid because it can no longer be regarded as a system of absolute, eternal,

and universal truth as it once was? Shall we discard it as having no real value? Sir James Jeans has recently published a book entitled *The Mysterious Universe*. Many of us have been fascinated by it. It is, indeed, a mysterious universe in which we live. But the most mysterious being in this universe is man himself. It is with knowledge of this being that we, as educators, are primarily concerned. The knower is even more fascinatingly mysterious than the universe that he knows.

Through millions of years the human organism has been evolving by a selective process that is still going on. Structures have developed within this organism that select and respond to certain influences in the universal environment with which it is surrounded and reject others. Within the organism as a whole these structures and their reactions are more or less perfectly correlated and coordinated, and through their natural functioning certain needs have developed, some of which find expression in the form of hungers that demand satisfaction. Some of these hungers are distinctly conscious while others are only vaguely so. It is possible and probable that some of them are not present in consciousness at all, even in the form of vague feeling of well- or ill-being. Be that as it may, it seems quite certain that none of these hungers that are essential to the well-being of the human organism as a whole can be safely ignored without danger and the possible destruction, sooner or later, of the organism itself.

Education, then, as we must think of it, is concerned with the whole organism. When we say that the whole child must be sent to school and dealt with in our effort to educate him, we utter a truth the full significance of which possibly no one of us fully appreciates. Of the child's bodily organism the educator needs to have such knowledge as physics and chemistry may supply, but he needs vastly more than this. Like the rest of the so-called physical or material universe, the child's body is composed of chemical compounds, of atoms and electrons; but the importance of such knowledge, from the point of view

of the needs of the educator, is very meager, indeed. Much more important is knowledge of the operation of the structures that perform the function of selection and response to the forces and influences involved in the effort at satisfactory adjustment to the external environment. These structures are much more numerous and even fundamentally more important than the organs of sense, such as sight, touch, hearing, etc., with which educators are usually concerned. The former are involved in adjustments which are fundamental to physical and mental health and the maintenance of life; while the latter are primarily concerned with the more immediate and obvious adjustments required in everyday life.

The human body, in its natural functioning has all along been taking account, though unconsciously, of many influences that are beyond the grasp of the organs of sense, and the hunger of the bodily organism for this form of stimulation has been so fully established that the absence of it leads to serious consequences in the physical and even in the mental growth of the individual.

Experimental research in this whole new field is leading to other interesting and important results in medical and health education and practice. The origin and cure of certain new health disturbances and diseases which grow out of the artificial and unnatural environment of modern city and indoor life will very probably be discovered by vigorous research in these new fields.

In all this, there is suggested a line of approach to a philosophy of education which should influence the general policy and program of the school of education. The field is a fascinating one for almost unlimited research. If we are to educate the whole child under modern conditions, we must come to understand both the child and the conditions far better than we now do. The need of such understanding is much more important and critical at the present time than in any previous period of our national history. We are concerned with an individual organism

with its natural, varied, and complex equipment and its corresponding hungers for active expression built out of selective processes that have been going on through the ages. The normal, synchronized, and coördinated activity of this organism is essential to its physical, mental, and spiritual health. Activities of every sort, essential to this end, must, therefore, be recognized and the corresponding hungers for expression, whatever they are, appropriately considered. Prolonged neglect, understimulation, over-indulgence, disproportionate or discordant expression, should, so far as possible, be avoided.

The supreme values sought are not all to be found in satisfying the desire to know and the desire to do. Those which find expression in feeling or emotion, however vague, must also be recognized. Failure at this point is perhaps the greatest present weakness in American education.

What has been said up to this point is evidently in essential harmony with the underlying philosophy of what is now called the creative movement in present-day education. However, the complexity, variability, and accelerated speed of the modern social, economic, and civic environment into which the child is immersed when he leaves school makes the full realization of this point of view difficult.

Because of the marvelous results of scientific research and ingenious invention, the influences of this total environment that are now brought within the range of clear, conscious discrimination have been vastly increased. At the same time, the artificiality of the environment in which much of our lives is spent, especially in urban communities, is such as to prevent the natural stimulation and effect of other influences to which the human organism has long grown accustomed and for which it has developed an essential need. The influence upon physical health of the ultra-violet rays of the sun already referred to is an example of this. At the same time, this same urban environment provides various forms of artificial and hurtful overstimulation. This is not infrequently true of the environment in school as well as of that outside

Because of the numerous inventions and their application in our modern machine economy, this is sometimes spoken of as a jazz age. Some one has likened it to the effect produced by a ship with a cargo of musical instruments that has been wrecked on a far-away island. The inhabitants of the island have come down to the ship and each one has begun blowing, pounding, or plucking one of these instruments, so that the din that is being produced is far from the harmony of a well-organized orchestra. We are indulging ourselves in numerous ways in trying out most of our new instruments of expression that are now available and have not yet learned how to bring the results into any sort of harmony, either individual or social. Society as a whole in its progress at present is indulging in a trial and error, or, if you prefer, a trial and success method of procedure. This, after all, is a fundamental condition of progress. If we are naturally optimistic, as I believe we should be, as to the fundamental capacity of our people to bring, ultimately, order out of chaos, we may indulge the hope that in the not distant future we may develop our activities into the harmony of a fine orchestra, rather than continue as merely a jazz band.

Looking back over our national history, one sees clearly that in our progress up to the present time we have naturally emphasized those values which come from encouraging the desire to know and to do, with special emphasis upon gaining certain desirable controls over our physical environment. The problem has been primarily that of developing and appropriating to various desirable uses the rich natural resources of our physical environment. Accordingly, in education we have emphasized the discovery and dissemination of knowledge of this physical world and the development of behavior controls in the most effective use and application of that knowledge. Our educational institutions responding to this fundamental social interest have, therefore, consciously or unconsciously shaped their curricula and instructional procedure in relation to this demand. The effort has been to furnish the indi-

vidual with knowledge and the ability to use it effectively in the solution of problems. We have been too little concerned with questions that have to do with the kinds of problems which individuals so educated will desire to solve, whether those problems are of value to society in general or not.

As already pointed out, problems in which the individual may be most interested in solving are those of the racketeer, the concocter and seller of fiendish drugs, and the utilization of such instruments for the promotion of selfish purposes and the degradation of other individuals to that end. Some of the most brilliant minds at the present time profiting by their education so far as knowledge and the ability to use it are concerned are engaged in such harmful activities as racketeering, robbing, kidnaping, and social crimes in general.

Recognition of this fact is bringing about emphasis upon character education and the need of promoting, so far as possible, through our institutions of learning, those outcomes which promote physical, mental, social, civic, and spiritual health and well-being in the community as well as in the individual citizen. A school of education, therefore, whose fundamental purpose is individual and social service through education, must, in preparing men and women to serve in various capacities to that end, avail itself intelligently as far as possible of all materials that throw light upon the nature of this problem and the manner of its successful solution.

In what I have said thus far, I have endeavored to state and emphasize one of the fundamental functions of a school of education which is identified with a great university; namely, the promulgation, as far as it can, of an educational philosophy that is in harmony with the essential spirit and needs of present-day life. The primary aim of such a school should be to assist, as far as possible, in the solution of the problems of modern education, especially of American education. In its effort to accomplish this aim, it should take advantage of its relation to the

other schools and colleges of the university by utilizing as fully as possible their resources in cordial and mutually helpful coöperation. Obviously, many of the types of investigations indicated in what I have said are not confined to the school of education, but extend beyond its boundaries into the legitimate fields of instruction and research of other divisions. There should be an especially close cooperative relationship between the faculty and the work of the school of education and those of the graduate and undergraduate divisions of arts and sciences.

In addition to the effort to determine and promote a sound philosophy of education suited to modern conditions, the aim of the school of education requires at least three other principal lines of effort. (1) The professional education and training of teachers, supervisors, administrators, and others employed in the various types of service needed in education at all levels from pre-kindergarten to university, including adult education. As a professional school, no part or activity of the whole field of education is beyond its interests. (2) Research, both pure and applied, and the publication, determination, and use of the results of research, not only of its own faculty and students, but also of other agencies. (3) Field service in the way of cooperative study of local school problems in coöperation with those who are in responsible charge, including counsel and professional advice, lectures, courses for the education of those in service, individual and group conferences, surveys, and committee service.

Such, in brief, are some, though by no means all, of the appropriate functions of a university school of education

ORGANIZED FIELD SERVICE IN A SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

FRANCIS J. BROWN

The term "organized field service" is interpreted, for purposes of this article, as all activities both on the campus and in the field conducted by the school of education for teachers in service. This definition excludes the two fields of pre-service teaching and summer sessions.

To many persons the term field service is synonymous with extension, that is, courses offered through class instruction and correspondence. Several factors contribute to this misconception; correspondence and extension were the first organized agencies to be developed; due to the competitive aspect, they are the types of service given most publicity through catalogues and bulletins, and they have been commercialized through utilizing credits thus earned as a basis of salary increments.

The purpose of this article is threefold: first, to point out and specifically illustrate the wide variety of types of services rendered to teachers in service, second, to describe certain administrative aspects of such service; and finally, to present a body of recommendations based upon an analysis of present practices and evaluations of field service submitted by superintendents of schools

TYPES OF FIELD SERVICE

Organized Courses. In 1930-1931, approximately 165,000 teachers in the United States enrolled in one or more courses offered by 138 colleges and universities. This means that one in seven of the teachers availed themselves of this opportunity for professional growth. These courses may be grouped under five major classifications: intramural extension, extramural extension, field courses, correspondence, and radio.

By intramural is meant those courses offered on the campus, usually in late afternoon, evening, and Saturday

morning, planned primarily for teachers in service. Dr Richard R. Price, director of University Extension, University of Minnesota, writes of this development:

It is no longer necessary to combat the medieval fetish that there is something sacred about the daytime hours so far as classwork is concerned, and that there is something diabolically unholy and uncanny about the hours after dark, that make them unfit for the use of a classroom teacher.¹

It is impossible to present actual figures of the number of students taking advantage of this type of service, but of the three major types—campus, extramural, and correspondence—Mr. Debatin² in his analysis of the extension offerings of 41 colleges and universities which belong to the National University Extension Association found that 21 institutions were offering 1,296 courses on the campus.

Extramural extension includes a wide variety of relationships with the university, varying from work offered in definitely established centers with separate administrative offices and teaching staff, to isolated courses offered either by an itinerant extension staff member who spends his time traveling over a definite circuit and meeting each class in rotation or by a resident member of the university staff who goes out once a week to give a single course in a near-by community. The first is illustrated by the University of Indiana which has permanent centers at Indianapolis, Fort Wayne, and Gary, and by Iowa State Teachers College with local centers in every section of the State. Pennsylvania State College and Illinois State Teachers College illustrate the second with a staff employed specifically to travel about the State; the third type—the single course in a near-by community—is so common as to need no specific illustration.

The courses offered in both types of extension, for the most part closely parallel those given in regular day classes, with some special adaptation to the needs of the field. There is a preponderance of purely professional as con-

¹ Richard R. Price, "Purpose of University Extension," *Proceedings, National University Extension Association*, 1924, p. 8.

² Frank M. Debatin, "The Extension Teaching Staff," *op. cit.*, 1929, pp. 64-78.

trusted with subject-matter courses, and perhaps an undue number of courses in method.

Correspondence work is offered in 31 of the 41 institutions studied by Mr Debatin. It was first admitted to the academic circle at the University of Chicago in 1892 and has continued to develop more rapidly in the Middle and Far West. In a study of 30 colleges and universities in the North Atlantic section^a only seven offered work by correspondence and, of these, two give it on a noncredit basis only. Perhaps the best illustration of correspondence is still the University of Chicago.

During the forty years the University of Chicago has conducted correspondence courses, it has provided instruction by mail to more than 60,000 adult students. In 1902, 90 per cent of the 4,334 students then enrolled were teachers. That percentage has gradually decreased and in 1930-1931 approximately 50 per cent of the 6,225 enrolled were teachers. Of the 746 students who completed their courses at the end of the summer quarter, September 30, 1931, 369 or 49.5 per cent were teachers in service.

Field courses represent a comparatively new development, that is, provision for the student in the field to carry out under guidance a program of individual reading or research with only occasional reports to the instructor or adviser. In the North Atlantic section but 5 of the 30 institutions provided for such service. Although there are administrative difficulties in the maintenance of equivalent standards, this type of course offers genuine possibilities in its adaptability to the needs of the individual student.

The newest addition to the academic circle is the course given by radio. Thus far it has made comparatively little advance in the field of formal instruction in education courses, although courses have been given by the University of Florida and the University of Wisconsin, to cite only two instances. Enormous development has been made in the use of radio programs in the classroom and as an

^a Francis J. Brown, "An Evaluation of Extra-mural Courses," *Journal of Administration and Supervision* (January 1932), pp. 13-20.

instrument for adult education, but it has not fulfilled the enthusiastic prediction that it would supplant the college.

Other Types of Service: It is impossible, within the limits of this article, to enumerate all of the types of service rendered by schools of education to teachers. A few of the more representative activities will be given and the variety of the services indicated under each will be suggested.

The radio, while used comparatively little for formal professional courses, is however one of the most important field services rendered by the school of education. Through its direct introduction into the classrooms of the public schools it has not only been an agent in the instruction of children but through the wide variety of materials presented and the techniques used has compelled teachers to broaden their own background of knowledge and improve their methods. To select but one institution from the twenty-seven large universities that broadcast educational programs, we shall again choose the first to provide such service, the University of Wisconsin. The Wisconsin Teachers Association and the University of Wisconsin Radio Station WHA have joined hands in effecting a comprehensive program for radio education. Each school day at 9.35 a. m. and 2.10 p. m. a different subject is broadcast to the schools of the State.⁴ Granting that the difficult "war" with commercial stations can be won and that the control of the programs can be kept under the surveillance of professional educators, this type of field service presents possibilities beyond the reaches of the imagination.

A second type of field service in some respects closely allied with the first is that of supplying and distributing visual aids. As in the case of radio, the larger proportion of the material is for use in the classroom. The budgets for visual education of 17 colleges and universities reporting vary from \$100 to \$24,675 for the year 1929-1930.⁵

⁴ Harold A. Engel, "The World's Oldest Educational Radio Station Carries On," *Education by Radio*, I, 40 (December 31, 1931).

⁵ *Proceedings*, National University Extension Association, Vol. 14, 1931, p. 89.

Here again is an extremely important field service which schools of education can and should render, and which has not been utilized to the extent to which it is possible in the improvement of classroom instruction.

A third type of field service is that of the library. This varies from the loan of single books to individual teachers to the preparation of carefully selected lists and the circulation of traveling libraries for teachers through the schools within the area served by the university. In 1926-1927 the University of Indiana sent out 5,801 package libraries, a considerable proportion of the persons thus served being teachers.

Another field service is that of research. This also varies in character from cooperative researches of fundamental educational problems such as that carried on in the field of character education by the School of Education, Yale University, or the permanent curriculum committees in Iowa, the conduct of educational surveys such as those conducted by Teachers College, Columbia, to the "borrowing" of children to procure data for a prospective Ph.D. Carefully and cooperatively planned research is one of the major field services which the school of education should render. Dr. Trabue sums up the value of this type of research as follows:

University research is of value to public-school administration whenever it

1. Results in a better evaluation of and a clearer understanding of the programs, practices, methods, materials, or techniques employed in the school

2. Originates or develops more effective materials, methods, programs, or techniques than the schools have previously possessed

3. Makes possible a reduction in unit costs*

These values imply a twofold function of the school of education in the field of research, that is, the conduct of the research itself, and its interpretation to the teachers in service.

* M. R. Trabue, "University Research and Its Value to Public School Administration," *Yearbook, National Education Association*, Vol. 67, 1929, p. 729

A fifth service rendered by the school of education to the field is that of lecture service. This may be a consecutive series of addresses or discussions as the ones conducted by Pennsylvania State College in conjunction with the institutes, or it may be isolated lectures. Dr. Bittner⁷ reports that exclusive of agricultural education, 2,026,000 persons were reached in 1919 through university lectures. It is impossible to estimate the per cent of this number who were teachers, but, undoubtedly, a very large proportion of the total teaching staff of our public schools is reached annually through such lectures. It is imperative that the faculty of the school of education be prepared to render such service and in such a way as to present in clear, forceful, and meaningful language the best in educational developments.

Two other types of service, although separately administered in most institutions, are so closely allied as to be discussed together, that is, placement and follow-up service. The former activity has developed largely within the last decade and even now is frequently conceived of as completing its responsibility to the student when it has succeeded in procuring for him his first contract. If, however, the placement bureau is to function adequately it must be an integral part of the follow-up service of the school of education, keep in close contact with the graduates, know their success or failure and what factors have contributed to it, and transfer them up or down the ladder of professional advancement as their success in the field warrants such change.

The program of follow-up now carried on includes everything from casual letters written by the teacher, reports prepared by the institution and filled in either by the teacher himself or by his supervisor, to a carefully planned series of observations of the teacher's work in the classroom followed by constructively critical conferences with the teacher and, if desirable, the principal or supervisor

⁷ W. S. Bittner, *The University Extension Movement* (Washington, D. C. Bureau of Education, 1919), p. 28

The University of Wisconsin, to cite again but one example, illustrates the latter type of follow-up service

The University of Wisconsin plan of follow-up is to make each graduate a member of the University Bureau of Follow-up Service during at least her first two years of actual teaching. The aim of this service is to afford the teacher help in solving her classroom problems. This help is given through visits by some one who knows the field in which she is working, by conferences and by correspondence.⁸

The final type of field service to be presented in any detail is that of conferences. These may be classified into four kinds, group conferences at the university or in the field and individual conferences at the university or in the field. The first is illustrated by the "Schoolman's Week" at the University of Pennsylvania, the Western Convention District meeting at the University of Pittsburgh, and the Junior-High-School Conference at New York University. An illustration of the second type, group conferences in the field, is the work done at Pennsylvania State College, which is described by Dr. Williams as follows:

Another form of institute substitute is that in which one of our regular instructors will spend from 10 to 16 days, one or two each week, in a district visiting individual teachers and holding conferences with them, attempting to solve particular local instructional plans. This type of service is rapidly replacing extension work of the earlier type and offers the best opportunities for the in-service education of teachers so far as the individual teachers are concerned.⁹

Other types of field-service activities include the following:

1. Supervisory-instructional
(Described on page 559 in this issue)
2. Participation of staff members in outside (noninstitutional) educational activities of school systems and of State
3. Correspondence (other than courses)
4. Pamphlets, bulletins, and other printed material
5. Preparation and distribution of bibliographies, teaching helps, etc

⁸G. A. Ridsen, "Supervisory Service Bureau of the University of Wisconsin," *School and Society*, XXVII (1928), pp. 257-258.

⁹C. O. Williams, "Study of State Wide Program of Teacher Training Extension, conducted by Pennsylvania State College," *Phi Delta Kappa Thesis*, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927, p. 12.

SPECIAL SERVICES OF THE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

NED H. DEARBORN

The Institute of Education has been established in affiliation with the School of Education and the Summer School of New York University to provide professional education for teachers and those engaged in educational service throughout the United States. The general types of service which the Institute of Education is prepared to offer are as follows:

1. *Courses for teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, and special workers in schools and colleges.* There are many reasons why professional courses for teachers should be organized in centers outside of the university campus. In the first place teachers are often desirous of improving their professional abilities and of extending the boundaries of their fields of knowledge. It is probably too often true that teachers are stimulated in this direction by such external influences as salary increments and bonuses, college degree requirements, and certification regulations. These outside influences are to be commended provided the primary purpose of systematic study, namely, professional improvement, is not overlooked.

From a purely financial standpoint there is unquestioned economy in extension teaching. It is much less expensive to send an instructor from the university campus to an outside center when his time and traveling expenses are considered than it is to require thirty or more teachers to spend their time traveling to and from the campus and to pay the necessary expense involved in traveling and in living away from home. From an educational standpoint there is no reason to expect a lower standard in extension teaching than is required in campus teaching. It is true that local groups of teachers miss the educational advan-

tages that accrue from contacts with teachers from other school systems. To offset this disadvantage it can be said in favor of extension teaching that concentration on a solution of local school problems is possible in extension classes that is quite impossible in campus teaching. One of the serious questions in relation to off-campus courses for teachers is library facilities. There is ample evidence to demonstrate that library facilities can be provided that are entirely adequate for the needs of the particular group in question. There is another point in connection with extension courses for teachers that is often overlooked; namely, the advantage that comes to the faculty members of the school of education in direct contacts and knowledge of local school problems. This type of experience enables the university professor to return to his campus courses with a freshened viewpoint and with ability to provide more practical help in his campus courses than he otherwise might be able to provide. In the School of Education of New York University where there is an established policy that all faculty members shall give a portion of their regular schedule to institute work, this advantage is a very real one.

2. *Educational research work in the field* This refers to studies directed by regular staff members of the School of Education with primary emphasis on the results obtained in the improvement of learning-teaching processes for the school system in which the research is conducted. This plan might properly be characterized as cooperative educational research. Under this plan the educational research is planned, conducted, and reported in cooperation with the staff members of the local school system. The results are of immediate and practical help to local staff members. Under this plan some particular research is, of course, recognized locally as a real need. The local staff members are fully aware of the details of the plan, the method of conducting the research, and they participate in the discussions that lead to the conclusions stated in the report made by the representative of the School

of Education. For example, the staff members of a local school system might decide that help in reading represents one of their needs. A specialist in reading from the school of education staff is secured to plan a method of research with the staff members of the local school system that will lead to a diagnosis of reading difficulties and a set of recommendations that will improve the reading program. Too often a specialist is called in to conduct a piece of educational research, the result of which is a scholarly report, very little read by the members of the local school staff. Coöperative research seems to meet the practical needs of teachers and supervisors in this matter.

3. *School surveys.* This service means a comprehensive analysis of conditions affecting the progress of the school system and recommendations related to financial, administrative, supervisory, and instructional needs of the school system under consideration. Cooperation again is the keynote of this service. Specialists in administration and instructional problems confer with the staff members of the local school system in planning and executing the survey service. The conclusions and recommendations are made jointly with the result that no time is lost unnecessarily in the interpretation of the survey report and in putting into practice the recommendations contained therein.

4. *Special investigations.* This refers to studies related to particular phases of school work. These are limited in scope and purpose and include matters not defined as "learning-teaching" research as mentioned under 2. In contrast to the comprehensive school survey, these special investigations deal with single units of the administrative and supervisory work of the local school system. Special investigations might relate to such matters as the location of school buildings, the planning of school buildings, school-building equipment, classification of pupils, organization of the supervisory staff, teachers' salaries, personnel work, and a host of other administrative and supervisory problems that are well known to every school superintendent.

5. *Advisory relationship.* In this service a member or a committee of the faculty of the School of Education may be secured for special advice on problems concerned with policy, program, organization, administration, or supervision of school work. These problems include questions of finance, buildings, personnel, pupil classification, and the like but the service does not imply the same amount of detailed investigation as is contemplated under the preceding service entitled special investigation. For example, one of the faculty members of the School of Education has been acting as a special adviser to the State normal-school faculties in Maine. These normal-school faculty members are organized in committees and are working on problems of curriculum revision in connection with the Maine program of preparing elementary-school teachers for the public schools. The adviser makes three trips annually to the State of Maine in his advisory relations with the State normal-school faculties. His work is general in character, the details of curriculum revision being left to the ingenuity and special knowledge of the various committees of the Maine normal-school faculties. Another example of this type of service may be found in a committee plan of advisory relationships with city school systems. An enterprise is projected in which several specialists on the staff of the School of Education confer with committee members of a local school staff on problems of curriculum revision. Here, again, the detailed work is conducted by the staff members of the local school system, the members of the faculty of the School of Education merely serving as general advisers, giving special help and direction to the work of the local committees.

6. *Conference and lecture work for laymen.* This service means presenting to laymen the purposes, plans, and programs of public education through school-board associations, women's clubs, civic orders, parents' organizations, church groups, fraternal orders, and service clubs. The fundamental thought underlying this service is that schoolmen have an obligation to answer laymen's ques-

tions on education that corresponds with the right of laymen, as supporters of public education, to ask questions regarding the plans and provisions for systematic education. The School of Education further believes that lay groups in education need professional help along two lines: (1) planning programs that deal with education subjects, and (2) securing speakers that will discuss in clear and forceful language the problems of education in which laymen are and ought to be interested and well informed. The School of Education is looking forward to an increased and improved use of newspaper facilities and special school publications for lay consumption. A comprehensive plan of education for laymen is contemplated in which much greater use may be made of magazines, monographs, and books than has been made heretofore. The radio is a relatively undeveloped medium of communication between the School of Education and laymen in education. In short, the special services to laymen anticipate, first, the selection of those topics in the field of education that are of particular interest and importance to laymen and, second, the development of materials either in the form of magazine articles, newspaper accounts, and books, or in lectures that are phrased in language clearly understandable to the average layman.

7. *Teachers' conference or institute work* This service refers to the assistance that may be given to professional groups in planning their educational programs and in providing educational speakers who will be particularly helpful to them in a practical way. One of the most commonly used forms of in-service education for teachers is the teachers' meeting, conference, or institute. Too often these meetings have dealt in generalities or have restricted their usefulness to inspirational addresses by "high-powered" platform artists. Seldom have teachers' meetings, conferences, and institutes been organized around one or two central themes which are of vital importance for the particular group at the time. These meetings are important and can be made very useful. They should be incorporated

as a regular unit of an integrated program of in-service education, planned and executed by the local school authorities with full recognition of the particular needs of the teachers that constitute the group.

The School of Education should be able to help local school groups by setting up standards for teachers' meetings, by making suggestion for themes around which the topics of discussion may be centered, and by providing suitable speakers who will be able to give the necessary and practical help that teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents all seek.

8. *Supervisory-instructional service* In connection with this service one full day each week is spent in class visitation and conferences with individual teachers in the local school system by a member of the staff of the School of Education. This is followed by group conferences at the close of the day for the discussion of questions arising from the actual classroom problems of the teacher. This is a combination of highly specialized supervision and of traditional instructional work with groups. Hence the name supervisory-instructional service. The advantages of this plan are very real. In the first place it bridges the gap that too often exists between theory and practice. The instructor helps the classroom teacher do the thing talked about in the traditional course in education and is often able to show the teacher by example as well as by precept how to improve her work. In the second place, it is of tremendous practical value because the local problems of a school or school system constitute the basis of study and discussion. The immediate classroom problems of the local teachers receive first-hand consideration. In the third place, it provides highly specialized supervisory service which may not be available in the local school staff. If there is specialized local supervision, it is quite likely to be restricted to certain fields. In this case the local supervisory staff will welcome specialized supplementary service from the outside. In the fourth place, it emphasizes improvement of classroom work rather than the accumula-

tion of credits and degrees. Lastly, it is available at a cost that any school system can afford.

These eight types of special service provided by the Institute of Education constitute the present program. It is interesting and highly significant that every one of these eight types of service has had its inception in the needs of local schools as expressed by teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents in charge of the work. They are not the fabrication of some imaginative mind in the School of Education that is charged with the responsibility of developing a comprehensive program of services in order to attract attention to the School of Education. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the desirability of having practical schoolmen and women in the field bring their problems and needs to the staff members of the School of Education. The School of Education can perform its best services only in assisting local school systems in the solution of their problems. This calls for an awareness of local school problems that is only possible when local school staff members understand that the School of Education is not merely making a friendly gesture, but that it is earnestly seeking every available means to cooperate with local school systems in the improvement of their educational programs. Any suggestions, therefore, will be cordially welcomed and sympathetic efforts will be made to develop such plans as will give the greatest amount of practical help to our associates at any time, anywhere, and to the extent that the facilities of the School of Education permit.

In summary, it might be said that the program of the Institute of Education is always modifiable and will be changed to keep pace with the changing conditions and needs that face schools and colleges throughout the country.

VIEWPOINTS RELATED TO SUPERVISORY- INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICE

A PUBLIC-SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT—PAUL D. SCHREIBER¹

I think I may safely begin my paper with the statement that intelligent, creative, and efficient supervision is a necessary adjunct to educational administration. The fundamental purpose of supervision is to provide for a scientific attack upon the problems of teaching by those who are at work in the classroom.

The need for this type of professional guidance is readily apparent among experienced and inexperienced teachers alike, but for different reasons.

The large school systems, recognizing the value of supervision, have a highly efficient personnel to assume this important function.

It is a more difficult problem for the small school. The small administrative units cannot afford a supervisory staff, and the practice of promoting teachers from the ranks to serve as department heads with supervisory responsibilities *has frequently resulted in friction among the other members of the staff as well as in questions of authority.* On more than one occasion in my experience it has been my duty to define the exact status of the department head in his relation to the teachers and the principal, with evident ill success.

It seems to me that the responsibility for supervision in the small school system should rest with the principal. His position as an administrative officer should make it possible to overcome the usual difficulties that stand in the way of teacher cooperation. At the same time I am fully aware that unless definite provision is made, the principal is likely to be burdened with administrative details that will confine him much of the time to his office. This difficulty, fortunately, can be corrected by delegating minor

¹Address before a conference of Long Island schoolmen at Freeport, L. I., January 12, 1932.

clerical details to other employees and thereby making it possible for the principal to give more time to supervision. This problem was solved in my own school when I obtained the approval of the board to employ a clerk for each principal after I had explained that for a sum of money equal to the modest salary of one supervisor I could engage four clerks who in turn would make it possible for four principals to devote the major part of their time to instructional supervision.

This plan has been in effect two years and has given convincing evidence of its superiority over the department-head type of supervision. Some of the results have been shown in a greater interest on the part of the principals in their work and in a discovery of conditions in the classroom which were unknown before—some of which were encouraging and others rather disturbing. There was another outcome that was helpful: the principals learned a great deal about their own schools and frankly admitted it.

Nor did they stop here. It became apparent that our curriculum as well as our educational practice had become obsolete and in need of revision if our schools were to keep abreast with the educational trend. A frank and careful inventory of the teaching personnel gave little promise of leadership and ability from that source, although fully fifty per cent of our teachers had devoted some of their leisure time during the past five years to advanced study. This statement is not one of criticism of the value of extension study. A careful evaluation of university extension study discloses many benefits, most of which are personal, resulting in a broadening intellectual outlook or improved technique.

At best the benefit of specialized study on the part of the teacher is practically confined to her own classes. Her classes in reading may give evidence of her special study in that subject but it is hardly likely that the effect will be noticeable throughout the school. And so it became apparent that if the school were to benefit from the fruits of educational research all of the teachers in that school

must concentrate their efforts upon one major problem at the same time, under the direction of a capable supervisor possessing special fitness for the task. If the major problem selected were reading in the elementary school, then all elementary teachers would unite in a scientific attack upon the difficulties encountered in teaching elementary reading in the school. *The result, if successful, would benefit the school system.*

The plan was laid before the director of the Institute of Education of New York University. After going over the matter carefully he gave it his enthusiastic approval. The problem selected for study was elementary reading. The plan worked out called for the selection of a member of the University staff whose ability, scholarship, and experience in this particular field best fitted her for the undertaking. The organization of the group followed along the lines of the usual university extension course but differed in these respects: cost was to be borne by the school, no credits would be granted unless the individual teacher made application and paid the customary fee; one day a week would be given by the instructor to observation and conferences with teachers, followed by group discussion at the end of the day. The advantages of this plan were immediately obvious—the instructor could acquaint herself with all of the factors and difficulties as they existed in that particular school and in that particular classroom and at the same time, as a supervisory agent, give each teacher such advice, aid, or demonstration as she especially needed.

The results were readily apparent. There was an awakening of interest among the elementary teachers that carried with it those teachers who ordinarily would not undertake such a project. New objectives were set up and new devices and approaches were employed. Much of the reserve and embarrassment between supervisor and teacher was overcome by the charm and personality of the supervisor and the substitution of afternoon tea on an average of once a month in place of the group discussion.

Last fall three studies were undertaken. The elementary school worked on the problem of "Projects and Their Correlation"; the junior high school on "Directed Study"; and the senior high school on "Adapting the High-School Curriculum to the Needs and Abilities of the Individual Pupil."

I do not wish to convey the impression that the experiment is an unqualified success. Difficulties have to be overcome and mistakes corrected. Some of them important enough to warrant mention are the following:

Teachers and principals must have clearly in mind the problem that is to be studied.

There must be a general realization on the part of the faculty of need for such study.

The project must have the unwavering support of the principals and superintendent. The former should attend group meetings and take an active part in the discussion, and the latter must keep in close touch with the work. The attitude, example, and support of the administrative officials are essential to the success of the project.

Care must be taken, also, to make the teachers feel that professional improvement rather than external compulsion is the *prime motive*.

On the other hand, the instructor or supervisory agent must be chosen for his ability, personality, sincerity, and special fitness for the task. He must clearly understand his commission and be in full sympathy with it. Once the course has been laid he must stick to it. He is engaged for a specific purpose.

He must be patient and tactful.

He can ill afford to belittle the program of education in the school.

He must be resourceful and at the same time practical so that he can give demonstration of his ideas.

He must realize that teachers vary in ability and enthusiasm just as individuals in other professions do.

In conclusion, I would say that this type of in-service training of teachers has for its goal specific objectives; its benefits are immediate and at the same time far-reaching. It makes it possible for any school to obtain supervisory services of a high order at a moderate cost. It provides definite contact between the school of theory in education and the school of practice, with untold advantages to both.

A PUBLIC-SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT—JOHN W. DODD²

The plan offered by the Institute of Education of New York University, which combines supervisory work with group discussions and individual conferences, is without doubt the most satisfactory type of teacher training in service our school system has had.

The plan itself is very practical. The fact that the instructor visits the regular classroom of the teacher makes it possible for the teacher to receive help on her immediate problems. This, I think, is one of the best features of supervisory instructional service. The material which forms the basis of discussion in the general meetings is the result of actual classroom observations.

Focusing the attention of all grades on the study of one subject, such as arithmetic, for a period of a year has a very good effect. The best literature in the field and the best technique of classroom instruction are brought to the attention of the group by an expert and studied.

In Freeport, it seems to me that the fact that this course started with an enrollment of thirty teachers and in a very little while increased in enrollment to forty-nine is evidence of an unusual interest in this type of work since enrollment is absolutely voluntary.

Enthusiasm, Interest, and Understanding

A number of years ago I heard a prominent educator declare that one of the greatest things in education is enthusiasm; some time later another equally prominent person made the statement that one of the greatest things in education is interest, and recently I came across the remark that it is understanding. Greater enthusiasm, keener interest, and better understanding in arithmetic are the results of supervisory instructional service. A great deal of the enthusiasm is due to the personality of the instructor. The keen interest I attribute to the very practical work being done in the course. Better understanding

²Address before a conference of Long Island schoolmen at Freeport, L. I., January 12, 1932.

naturally comes from focusing attention on the study of a definite problem.

To schoolmen I recommend this service which the Institute of Education of New York University is prepared to give. I am sure that this type of work is something which will help any school. We in Freeport are delighted with the results of the course.

I think the Institute of Education of New York University is to be congratulated for initiating this type of in-service training on Long Island.

A HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL—WILLIAM F. MERRILL

In our school we have had one-half year of supervisory instructional service with several desirable results. The instructor made no attempt to interfere with organization or procedure. However, the fact that he was a stranger to our system made it easier for him to detect both good and bad features. By careful planning of individual conferences and group discussions our interest was aroused and attention drawn to problems which might otherwise have received only casual attention.

Usually each teacher deals largely with his own field of work and its peculiar problems. An outsider can consider the situation as a whole and can pass over small details which ordinarily absorb our attention. He can direct the thought of the faculty to problems of instruction, organization, and administration which affect the school as a whole and the welfare of the individual pupil in particular.

To conduct such a course the instructor needs the vision to see clearly, the knowledge of educational procedure that comes from much study and broad experience, the ability to express ideas convincingly, and the personality to command attention and interest.

We have made few changes in our procedure as a result of this course. We have benefited by all centering attention in the same direction and by all considering problems of common interest in relation to the welfare of our pupils. Perhaps our chief discussions were those emphasizing the

value to pupils of increased participation, responsibility, and interest, and ways in which these might be realized. It is, therefore, understandable that we ourselves have developed a renewed interest in the pupil as an individual, a greater feeling of responsibility for whatever will be best for him, and an increased willingness to participate in various phases of school activity in addition to our special field of classroom instruction while at the same time maintaining the work of the classroom on a level of undiminished quality.

A HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHER—T. DIMMICK

The tremendous enrollment of teachers in the professional courses offered by colleges and universities gives convincing evidence of the fact that the training of teachers in service is generally recognized as an important part of professional growth. While the effects of this widespread continued education have been reflected to a considerable degree in improved teaching, the benefits in teacher improvement have not always been commensurate with the number of courses taken. The extent to which any one school benefits by the professional courses taken by its teachers depends very largely upon an administrative program designed to put to use what the teachers learn. The failure of teachers to use their professional training to the fullest extent is due largely to their becoming submerged in the routine details of an accustomed procedure and because it is so easy to continue their familiar practices under a full teaching load.

The most recent development in teacher training—that of having university courses designed to meet the needs of a particular school given within that school—is an important step forward. Such supervisory instructional service is logically correct in theory and practice. The degree to which it succeeds in practice, however, will depend upon several important factors.

A favorable attitude towards the course of study must be developed in the minds of the teachers. Without such

an attitude, a program of improvement, although scientifically planned and intelligently presented, will progress but slowly.

Upon the personality of the instructor will depend much of the success of his course. He must gain the confidence of the teachers, particularly if he is going to work with them in putting his ideas in operation. In such close co-operation between instructor and teacher, the personality of the one giving the course matters much more than it does in the university classroom. School administrators would do well to consider this point carefully; it is very important.

After a course in improvement of instruction has been given, it is necessary that some provision be made for following it through; otherwise the usual professional courses given in universities would be nearly as effective.

If teacher preparation, instructor personality, and the follow-up are kept in mind in bringing a university course into a school, such supervisory instructional service should be a most effective method of teacher training.

AN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL—FLORENCE M.
ALLEN³

To a teacher in service, a course wherein she may obtain ideas and helps which will benefit her in her everyday classroom work is very valuable. I believe such is the case where supervisory-instructional courses have been offered.

This year we have taken advantage of a course in arithmetic. The instructor spends a definite amount of time in our building and sees the teachers at their everyday work. At the end of the class there is a conference between teacher and instructor with the principal "sitting in." During this period, the principal has the advantage of being able to compare her suggestions with those offered by the instructor. This is a definite check on the principal's judgment.

The instructor, who should be a skilled demonstrator,

³Address before a conference of Long Island schoolmen at Freeport, L. I., January 12, 1932.

is always willing to teach a regular class lesson. This is of great assistance to both principal and teacher in that the best way to present material is brought to her observation. Very often the work is done by the instructor in the same manner as would be done by the teacher and this, too, gives a sense of satisfaction to both principal and teacher. The best ways to present material are discussed freely by teachers, principal, and instructor and in this way problems are cleared up in a most satisfactory way. When cases have come up where disagreement has arisen as to the best methods of procedure, the problems have been presented to the discussion group and there have been cleared up to the satisfaction of those concerned.

The question of the most suitable course of study for our particular system has been uppermost in our minds this year. From this course, we hope to make an arithmetic curriculum which will be fitted to our own use. We have made a particular study of textbooks and will make the same study of various courses of study which will be submitted to us by the instructor. We feel that by working together under competent guidance and leadership, a most useful as well as interesting course of study will be developed.

AN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHER—LYRA B. BOYD

The course dealing with arithmetic in the elementary schools, which is being conducted in Freeport, Long Island, by an instructor from the Institute of Education of New York University, is characterized by the integration of instruction and supervision. From my viewpoint, that of the classroom teacher, its major function is the "tying-up" of theories and principles with actual working practices.

On the days when the instructor is to visit our classrooms, the teachers do not remark, "I must teach a special lesson in arithmetic today." Instead, you are apt to hear them say, "Today I am presenting some work in arithmetic which usually gives my children trouble. We can depend on some real help from the instructor."

As the work in the classroom proceeds in a perfectly natural fashion, the instructor notes any problems that may arise. In an unobtrusive way she enters into the class activity at times. Then, upon leaving, she imparts to the teacher whatever personal corrections or approbations she deems the lesson deserves. She might direct us to accepted sources of help, but she goes still further.

At the close of the day the instructor meets with us in a group discussion. All phases of the general problems are then analyzed and corrective measures presented. We find that among our own teachers we have widely varied notions of teaching arithmetical processes. These differences might seem trivial to an onlooker, yet, as groups of little children are promoted from grade to grade, the diversified treatment of these features might confuse their number knowledge to a dangerous degree. With the endorsement of the instructor, a definite method of procedure is adopted.

Furthermore, the instructor makes notes of the effective methods and devices used in the various classrooms and, by her approval and encouragement, we are inspired to increased effort and improved teaching technique.

Through working out the unitary abilities, or the steps of difficulty, in the fundamentals of number work, we have become "sequence conscious" and are stimulated to a close discrimination of all the number work we present, as well as to a self-analysis of our individual classroom practices and standards. In this way our philosophy is carried directly back into our classrooms and put into operation.

As the instructor raises our arithmetical level week by week by her commendation of the good, her remedial suggestions for the improvement of the poor, and the substitution of newer and more efficient methods for the older and more obsolete devices, I am more and more convinced that this is the ideal type of extension course for practical professional growth.

AN INSTRUCTOR—JOSEPHINE H. PIEPER⁴

When I was asked to talk about supervisory instruction from the point of view of the instructor, I tried to think how I could characterize briefly the supervisory instructional program. It seemed to me that the one word which most adequately described the instructors' reaction to this new procedure was the word "satisfying." With apologies to the writers of advertisements for Chesterfield cigarettes, I should like to adopt their slogan, revise it slightly, and apply it to this subject—"It satisfies."

In attempting to analyze this satisfaction I hit upon an analogy which may perhaps clarify the psychological elements of the instructor's reaction. When I was a small child I was not given particularly to an interest in household tasks, but this apathy was aggravated into an alarming aversion to the job of dusting; that is, to dusting in general. There was one part of the dusting, however, in which I took a great delight, namely, the dusting of the mahogany furniture, the big piano in particular. To dust anything else made me feel ill, which I attributed to the stooping, but the legs of the piano, which were just as near the floor as were the rockers of the golden oak chairs, were a joy and a delight. I took great pleasure in examining the beautiful shiny surface of the mahogany after the dust cloth had removed the film of dirt and in contrasting the dusted portion with the undusted. I used to do the work in little patches in order to make the contrast more vivid. I believe that the basis of this satisfaction can be found in the opportunity the situation afforded for the laborer to see clearly the results of her labor.

It is upon this same basis that the satisfaction arising in the work of supervisory instruction rests. One is able to see the fruits of his instruction expressed in something tangible and worth while. The usual course given in a teachers college or university affords no such direct

⁴Address before a conference of Long Island schoolmen at Freeport, L. I., January 12, 1932

means of evaluating its effectiveness. For this purpose we are forced to rely upon the reports submitted and upon the reactions, conscious and overt, of the individuals in the group to which we are imparting the pearls of great price. The reports, we know full well, may be the fruit of the labors of some instructor in the dim and distant past, the evidence of which has been hoarded in fraternity archives for, lo, these many years. And we learn through sad experience that the reactions of the group in the classroom are not to be trusted as valid indices of the power which we are exerting on the youth who sit at our feet. We come to mistrust that expression of eager and absorbed interest which students learn to assume when they enter a classroom and abandon as easily at the stroke of a bell. I recall a case in point which left my illusions shattered and my faith in my own prowess verging on the brink of destruction. A student in a class which I was teaching in a State normal school had throughout the entire course been a source of considerable annoyance to me. She was well behaved but disinterested. She never interrupted me in any way except by her utter lack of response. She sat in the front row and nothing I said made any impression on her. Her expression seemed to say, "I have to sit here but I don't have to like it." It got to be almost a phobia with me to have to look into that blank, expressionless face, and go right on talking required a superhuman effort. One morning as I began my discussion I noticed a brightening in her eye, a quickening of interest, an intentness and alertness which thrilled me immeasurably. Spurred on by this new interest, and all the time wondering what I said that might have aroused it, I arose to great heights in my zeal to keep the spark aglow. Her eyes never left my face during the entire hour and great was my joy, after the class was over to see her waiting in the line of students which always collects around an instructor's desk when the class period is finished. I could scarcely answer the questions of the others for wondering what she would say when she reached me. After the others had all been satis-

fied I turned to her and smiled my welcome. But the smile died on my face when she said, "Where did you get your hair done? I would give anything if I could get a wave like that." Thus are we often misled in our attempts to judge ourselves by the yardstick of our interpretation of the reactions of other individuals.

The coordination of supervision with instruction, however, gives to the instructor the rare privilege of stepping into a classroom, some time after a discussion with a group of teachers, to see those same teachers applying the suggestions which have grown out of the discussion with the group, to see the little children growing in skill and in power. It is a great pleasure to hear the teacher say, "The children like this so much," and if by chance the teacher says, "The children don't like to do it this way"—well—that is not pleasant, but it is of immeasurable value and should become a source of satisfaction and pleasure with other teachers and other children.

The plan of the particular course which I am conducting in Freeport is this: I spend one day each week visiting classes in the schools, watching the children at work, and observing the teachers' techniques. From the standpoint of administration it will be of interest to note that I visit two schools one week, one in the morning and one in the afternoon, and the other two schools the next week. The third week the first two schools are visited, reversing the order of the morning and afternoon periods. Thus each school has been visited every second week. We plan to vary this procedure slightly, however, during the second semester. Due to the fact that there are more teachers in certain buildings than in others, we plan to make the number of visits in the ratio of 3:2:2:1, which approximates the relation between numbers of teachers in the four buildings. We will continue doing two buildings each week but the order will be varied. We feel that in this way we can more adequately meet the needs of each of the forty-nine teachers who are cooperating in this work.

After each observation there is some time allotted for

personal conferences of teacher, principal, and instructor. May I interject here a little statement about the importance of the principal in the success of a supervisory instructional program. If the work which we are carrying on here has met with any measure of success it is due to the splendid cooperation of the superintendent and the principals. And, may I say further, if any of you are contemplating the initiation of such a program in your own school system, you should first assure yourselves of the fact that the teachers and the principals are eager and willing to cooperate, for without such cooperation the whole program would be an empty gesture. But, back to the subject of personal conferences. These conferences are held as soon as possible after the observation, usually immediately following the lesson or at the mid-morning recess, or at the close of the morning or afternoon session.

I feel that this individual conference is the pivotal feature of the entire plan. It is by means of personal contact with each of the teachers that the less obvious but more fundamental needs of individuals are discovered. Observation without discussion is unfair to the individual observed. The discussion gives him the privilege of interpreting his procedure in the light of his plans and purposes. It is surprising how often a bit of technique observed in the classroom which seems to the observer utterly valueless or perhaps even vicious takes on a real value when considered with the teacher from the standpoint of her particular problem. It is through the personal conference that the instructor is enabled to interpret for the individual the recommendations which the instructor suggests to the group. It is important for the instructor to realize that there are comparatively few blanket rules which he can lay down for application to any and every classroom situation and it is important for the instructor to make the teachers conscious that he is aware of this by helping them to interpret and to adapt the generalizations to their particular situations.

The individual conference plan is sometimes varied

slightly by having a small group conference of the teachers of the same grade in the same school. This means a group of two or three, which is small enough to have most of the advantages of the individual conference, as well as the benefit of group thought on their common problems.

On occasion, instead of going into the classroom to observe the teacher at work, it has proved of some value for the instructor to take over the class for the purpose of demonstrating some phase of teaching technique. Personally, I hold no brief for demonstration as a panacea for all teaching ills nor do I set myself as a model upon which all teachers may do well to pattern themselves, so I have confined this phase of the work to actual requests from individuals to see this or that kind of work being done. These demonstration lessons have been conducted in three ways: (1) demonstration given for one teacher, using her class; (2) demonstration given for two teachers, combining the classes of both teachers; (3) demonstration given for from two to six teachers, using the class of one of them. The latter plan has several advantages some of which are:

1 It is economical to reach several people with the same time and energy which would have to be spent in doing the job for only one person.

2 It is much easier for the instructor to handle a group of the ordinary size than to try to conduct a lesson with eighty wiggling boys and girls occupying some forty ordinary seats.

3 The conference which should follow demonstration as well as observation is more profitable when several individuals can contribute to it.

Despite its advantages, the third plan of conducting demonstration work cannot always be followed due to the difficulties which arise in administering it.

At the end of the school day which has been spent in observation or demonstration, followed by individual or small group conferences, the teachers come together for a general conference. This conference is conducted in two groups, one hour being given to the teachers in grades

one, two, and three and the second hour being given to the teachers in grades four, five, and six. The first part of each conference hour is devoted to a consideration of problems which have arisen during classroom observation which are general in nature and so of interest to the entire group. Through this discussion the teachers are able to settle many of their common problems. The rest of the time is spent in conducting a course in the teaching of arithmetic, such as I conduct with students in the University itself. Since the teachers are given the privilege of doing this work for university credit, if they so desire, it is essential that the work carried on in the conference period be conducted in a way which will meet the standards set up by the University. Assignments for outside work are made and carried out by the teachers and surprisingly enough it has been my experience that they are more faithful in doing the outside work and more regular in bringing in required reports than are the University students whose sole business is to carry out the requirements of the various courses for which they are registered.

All of the steps in the plan of the course—observation, individual conference, demonstration, and group conferences—are given direction by the central theme of diagnostic and remedial work. It is important that there be one coordinating factor lest the various units of the procedure become isolated, resulting in much dissipation of the energy expended by the group. The teachers have, through the group conference, worked out a plan of diagnosing the skills involved in the fundamental processes of arithmetic. For this purpose the teachers have built tests covering each of the processes step by step. While this may seem to be a wasteful procedure in view of the many good tests available commercially, it is the opinion of the instructor that a testing program is as adequate as is the teacher's understanding of the program which she is attempting to administer. Having built her own tests she knows what they are attempting to measure and, therefore, is in a position to judge the results. The teachers

have developed remedial materials, based upon the diagnostic tests, to enable the children to attain the skills tested.

The diagnostic and remedial program, although it is the coordinating factor of the work, is not the sole objective but finds ramifications in techniques and activities designed to enlarge the scope of the arithmetic program

An attempt has been made to build the course around the desires and needs of the principals and teachers. In accordance with this aim much of the second semester's group conference work will be devoted to a consideration of the course of study in arithmetic for Freeport, Long Island. This is of paramount importance to both principals and teachers as revealed by their frank expression of opinion. It is being postponed until the end of the year's work because the teachers will be better able to consider the problems of curriculum construction in the field of arithmetic after having made an intensive study of the subject itself. We plan to conduct this part of the work by making careful analyses of the best courses of study published within the last five years and then, by comparison of data, determining what outline of work would be best adapted to this particular situation.

The outcomes of such a supervisory instructional course should be increased enthusiasm for the subject on the part of the teachers and improved work in the subject on the part of the students. The duration of this increased enthusiasm and effort should not be that of the time during which the course is being conducted. The maintenance, during the years to follow, of the growth achieved during this year's concentrated effort is of paramount importance. Under the proper guidance the course should function better after it is completed than while it is in progress, due to the fact that during the present year only one point at a time can be considered and the cumulative effect is slowly acquired while the following year the teachers have the benefit of the sum total of their thought and effort of the

previous year to apply to the work throughout the entire year.

As a means of setting up a program for maintenance, the instructor hopes to leave the work in arithmetic for the years to follow under the direction of a committee of teachers. It is her aim to have the chairmanship and personnel of this committee determined at the close of this year's work so that she may be of some assistance in helping them plan their activities and responsibilities. Membership in this committee should be voluntary lest its tasks prove so irksome as to militate against its successful functioning. The personnel of this committee should be representative of each of the six grades and the administrative officers but the committee should not be so large in number as to make the group unwieldy. Some of the activities of such a committee may be outlined as follows: (1) To direct testing at the beginning of the year; (2) to direct diagnostic work during the year; (3) to plan remedial work; (4) to direct final tests; (5) to stimulate and direct projects and to keep records of them; (6) to allocate units of work; (7) to stimulate and direct experimental work; (8) to study environmental aids outside of school; (9) to disseminate regular reports; (10) to prepare for a general group conference; (11) to lead the discussion of reports; (12) to plan an arithmetic progress day (exhibit of work, annual report of activities, published articles, statement of unsolved problems).

A service for the maintenance of the benefits derived from a course in supervisory instruction, which has not yet been made available but which possibly could be developed if the demand seemed to warrant it, may well be suggested here. I feel that the services of the Institute of Education could well be utilized for the purpose of a follow-up program to continue for a period of one to five years after a course in supervisory instruction. This ought not to be a very expensive procedure and yet would be of immeasurable value in supporting and ramifying the work already

accomplished. I suggest tentatively the following plan as a form which a follow-up program might well take:

1. The instructor should have one conference with the arithmetic committee appointed at the end of the course.

2. The instructor should have one or two conferences with teachers new to the system who did not have the benefit of the course (Suggested dates: October 1 and December 1.)

3. The instructor should have one general conference with the entire group (December 1) to consider problems arising out of new procedures.

4. The instructor should maintain an up-to-date bibliographic service for the teachers which would include the following items: textbooks, reference books, magazine articles, courses of study, tests, drill materials, work books, instructional materials.

Such a follow-up program might be adopted or not by any school system making use of the supervisory instructional service. The program could be adapted to meet the needs of each individual system, making available any one or all of the four items mentioned. Special needs of particular systems could be added to the list suggested. I mention the plan here only because of my enthusiasm for the possibilities of this new venture which is being undertaken by the Institute of Education and because of my realization that it is the sincere desire of the dean of the School of Education and of the director of the Institute of Education to make available to schoolmen the kind of service which will be most helpful.

ADVISORY SERVICE RELATED TO CURRICULUM REVISION

ALONZO F. MYERS

The problem of integrating the efforts and making proper utilization of the abilities of highly specialized groups in our modern social structure is one which must increasingly be recognized as of prime importance. The tendency to specialize is characteristic of workers at all levels. The maid-of-all-work, the Jack-of-all-trades, the family physician who treated colds, removed tonsils, and extracted teeth on occasion all are disappearing from the American scene. Probably we are better served by specialists; certainly many of the activities of modern life demand specialization for their successful performance. Nevertheless, this tendency towards specialization interposes its own serious problems. Frequently it is difficult to discover the specialist who is competent to handle a given problem. Not infrequently the problem is itself so complicated as to require the attention of several specialists, placing the unfortunate possessor of the problem in the position of needing to retain an entire staff of specialists or of failing to receive needed assistance.

There is some evidence to show that society is setting up correctives to the tendency towards overspecialization. The most familiar example in the business world is the corner drugstore which now carries drugs only as a relatively unimportant side line, but which will supply almost anything else you may desire from a quick lunch to hardware. Similar tendencies may be discovered in many of our large industrial organizations, such as the manufacture of electric refrigerators and radios by the General Motors Corporation. In the field of medicine the clinic and the hospital are serving as agencies for integrating the highly specialized services of members of the medical profession. At Yale University the Institute of Human Relations seeks

to orient prospective members of several professions, such as law, medicine, and psychiatry, in the contributions of fields other than their own to the solution of the complex problems of men

Education, like the other professions, has tended towards specialization in modern times. The problems of integrating the efforts of specialists in the different aspects and levels of education are claiming an ever larger share of the time and thought of educators. Specialization in the training of teachers has progressed to a point where primary teachers know little of the methods, procedures, and problems of their associates who teach at the level of the intermediate grades. The intermediate-grade teachers are quite unfamiliar with the aims and objectives of the junior high school. Special-subject teachers and supervisors have long been charged with failure to harmonize their fields with the rest of the work of the school and with the general aims of education.

Those who train teachers are charged with failure to acquaint themselves with the needs of the schools in which their graduates are to teach. Teacher-training people frequently feel that public-school administrators and supervisors fail to make proper utilization of the training and abilities of their young graduates.

In education, as in other fields, the most promising element in the situation is the fact that we are becoming aware of the problem. Integration is becoming a popular word in educational circles. Teacher-training curricula are recognizing the problem through such ways as the provision of courses in introduction to education in which students are given a large initial view of the field of education. In their work in observation and student teaching, students frequently are given experience at levels other than those at which they expect to teach

There is an increasing tendency for faculty members in teacher-training institutions to secure a variety of contacts with actual public-school conditions. The follow-up programs of the teacher-training institutions probably are

as valuable in their effects upon the faculty members who participate as upon the young teachers who are visited. Extension courses and summer-session courses for teachers in service also have the effect of bringing those who work in teacher-training institutions in closer touch with the needs of the field. The number and variety of these contacts can be greatly increased to the mutual profit of the schools and of those who train the teachers.

Curriculum revision in public schools is one important activity which not only provides an opportunity for bringing about a closer integration of the units, levels, and subject-matter fields represented in the schools, but which calls for the greatest possible degree of highly coordinated effort on the part of those specialists who have a contribution to make in this important undertaking. Best practice, and even common practice, has advanced a long way during the past twenty years in this matter of curriculum construction and revision. We have long since abandoned the notion that this is a task to be performed by the administrator, or by the administrative and supervisory group, and handed down, like a book of recipes, to those who have to use it. We have recognized that curriculum construction and revision is a coöperative enterprise and that classroom teachers have an important and vital function in it. This is one aspect of the general tendency towards coöperative supervision, a tendency which is the inevitable result of recent rapid increases in the preparation and tenure of classroom teachers.

Undoubtedly the old way of curriculum revision was much simpler and easier than the modern way. It is no small task to enlist and direct intelligently the efforts of a group of teachers in a sustained and fruitful attack upon the problems of curriculum revision in a school system. Teachers and supervisors are busy people. Many of them have not been adequately prepared for effective service on curriculum committees. Unfortunately, too, many of them have participated in abortive efforts at curriculum revision

and are not readily interested in new proposals which may have a similar outcome.

During the past decade the curriculum expert has become a familiar figure among the ever increasing group of specialists in American education. These specialists in curriculum construction have rendered real service in bringing to school systems which were able to afford it the benefit of successful experience and outstanding ability in the organization and direction of groups of teachers in the problems of curriculum construction and revision. Unfortunately, the great majority of communities have been unable or unwilling to employ outside assistance in this work.

In many of these same communities which have not considered it possible to employ outside assistance in their curriculum-revision programs, the teachers are spending thousands of dollars annually for extension courses, frequently with liberal subsidies from their boards of education in recognition of their efforts at professional growth. All too frequently these courses are quite unrelated to the problems confronting the teachers who are enrolled in them. It is one of the astounding things about too many of us who are engaged in that delightful occupation of teaching others how to teach that we can go into a community once each week for a term or a year with an extension course for the teachers in that community and never take the trouble to become aware of the problems with which those teachers are struggling. By so doing we fail to capitalize one of the finest opportunities for successful teaching that could possibly be afforded. Unfortunately, too, many of us would not know what to do with a real situation if we were confronted with it.

This situation, however, is in process of gradual correction. An insistent demand is coming from teachers who take extension courses and from public-school administrators that courses for teachers in service be closely related to the work and problems of those taking the courses. The teacher-training institutions are responding to this

demand with alacrity. The difficulty is to secure instructors who are able to render assistance in the solution of real educational problems.

In the field of curriculum revision the extension divisions of our teacher-training institutions have an admirable opportunity to render much needed assistance to teachers and public-school systems. All teachers may be expected to have a vital interest in the curriculum with which they work. We have quite generally accepted the notion that curriculum revision should be a cooperative enterprise, enlisting the best efforts of teachers as well as supervisory officers. No finer opportunity could possibly be offered to the instructional staff of a teacher-training institution in the field of the in-service education of teachers than that of working with the teachers of a community in the task of improving their curriculum. To do this successfully would require the expenditure of much more time and energy by all concerned than is usually required for the more conventioned type of extension course. The returns, however, would be correspondingly greater.

One difficulty with the organization of this kind of extension service is that few, if any, instructors would be sufficiently prepared in the various subject-matter fields to enable them to render adequate assistance and guidance in a program of curriculum revision. The solution, of course, is for the teacher-training institution to make available to the community not one instructor, but several, to the end that the best talent available in the respective fields may be brought to bear upon the problems of curriculum revision in the community. It will be readily apparent that such a proposal not only involves more work for those who participate, but careful planning between the teacher-training institution and the school officials of the community.

The Institute of Education of New York University, in response to specific requests from several communities, has set up a plan for rendering to public-school systems advisory service related to curriculum revision. The plan makes it possible for the teachers participating in the

curriculum-revision project to secure college credit for their work, although that point is not essential to the plan. If a sufficient number of teachers enroll for credit, as usually may be expected to be the case, their registration fees cover the entire cost of providing the advisory service.

When such a plan is entered into with a given community, the director of the Institute of Education selects a staff from among the faculty of the University to render the advisory service to the community. The staff consists of a general chairman or coordinator, a consultant in elementary education, a consultant in secondary education, and specialists in each subject-matter field which is to be included in the curriculum-revision program. Each member of the staff selected for this work makes regular scheduled visits to the community and conducts conferences or "holds class meetings" with those members of the local group who are concerned with his aspect of the study.

CONFERENCE SERVICE FOR LAYMEN IN EDUCATION

NED H. DEARBORN

Every layman in education has a perfect right to inquire regarding the work done in our public schools and the costs therefor. Public education is distinctly a public service supported by public tax money. Any one in public education, therefore, has an obligation to provide the layman with complete and accurate data regarding the purposes, programs, and plans of public education.

There is grave danger of the overinstitutionalization of public education. By overinstitutionalization we mean that members of the teaching profession are prone to "overestimate" the values of their specialized abilities, to forget that they are under obligations to render an accounting to the public in whose interest public schools were established, and to forget that society is the whole of which public education is only a part. The result is a feeling of resentment at lay criticisms, a tendency to "rationalize" their work among themselves rather than to give the public satisfactory explanations, and an attitude of expectancy towards society for the support of public education willy-nilly. This is overinstitutionalization and it is a danger to be avoided at all costs.

It is not uncommon for members of a profession that is conducted on a private business basis to practise, sometime quite unconsciously, a type of hocus-pocus that quite bewilders the layman. The psychological use of silences and wise looks, together with a clever use of highly technical terms enables the practitioner to leave his client with a feeling of hopelessness and inferiority. The result is that an unfortunate importance sometimes is attached to the abilities and knowledge of the professional worker. In private practice this air of mystery or superiority sometimes assists the professional practitioner. The profession

of teaching, however, is quite another matter. Here the professional worker in the public schools serves an institution that was originally organized to advance the cause of human welfare. Nothing short of complete candor, honesty, and accuracy will establish that type of public confidence needed to ensure permanent and substantial support for our public schools.

The use of simple, concise, and clear language is imperative in dealing with the public. Relatively few teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, or college professors are able to use language that is easily understandable to laymen. They are too prone to use a technical language that is not always understood even among members of the profession. The result naturally is a lack of confidence on the part of laymen in the ability of professional workers to plan and conduct the work of education in a way that justifies the expenditures rather generously made by the public.

Members of public-school staffs should do everything possible to keep the public informed regarding the work of the schools. Visiting days can be arranged at which time parents and other laymen can see the work of the classrooms and confer with the teachers regarding the work of children. Programs and school exhibits can be arranged for the benefit of laymen. Meetings can be arranged with teachers so that problems in education that are common to both laymen and teachers may be made the subject of interesting and helpful discussion. Personnel officers, such as school-attendance officials, visiting teachers, school nurses, physicians and dentists, deans, counselors and guidance officers can bring to the public a vast sum of information regarding the work of the schools. In this connection much can be gained through the use of school publications, newspaper items, magazine articles, and occasionally through books on education. Nothing, however, can take the place of personal contact that is accompanied with courteous and painstaking explanation.

There are many organizations designed specifically for the purpose of bringing the schools and laymen into close cooperation and understanding. To cite only three of the outstanding organizations of this type one might mention, first, the National Council of Parents' Education, second, the Child Study Association of America, and third, the National Council of Parents' and Mothers' Association. In local communities one finds parent-teacher associations, various civic organizations, fraternal orders, religious groups, and service clubs. These organizations are always anxious to have one or more programs during the year devoted to a discussion of education. The club leaders, however, are in need of sympathetic advice regarding the nature of their programs as related to education. It is at this point that professional leadership can be of tremendous service. In giving suggestions regarding the nature of programs, in suggesting breaking up general discussion topics into logical small units, and in recommending able speakers, the professional adviser can be of great service to lay groups.

Schools and colleges of education, by reason of their position of leadership, should be ready at all times to render a service to laymen in education that is unsurpassed by any similar group. This can be done by direct contact with lay groups and sometimes by working through the local school officials in providing programs and speakers for lay groups. A concrete example is found in the case of a superintendent of schools who desired a series of lectures on "Child Development" for the parents in his community. He conferred with one of the administrative officers in a near-by school of education stating his needs and requesting that a program be arranged and speakers secured for his city. A specialist on the staff of the school of education was consulted and he analyzed the topic of "Child Development" into six subdivisions and suggested specially qualified speakers to discuss each of the six topics. Through this method of coöperation between the local

school superintendent and the school of education, a distinct service was performed for the laymen of that particular city.

The Institute of Education is constantly studying the relationship of the school to the public. The problems, issues, and topics in education that are or ought to be of interest to laymen and the ways and means of presenting these problems, issues, and topics in effective ways constitute an important field of study. As the Institute through research, observation, and experience masters this field, the School of Education of New York University will increase its usefulness to laymen in education.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC.
REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912

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State of New York } ss
County of Albany }

Before me, a Notary Public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared A. J. Fowers, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the Business Manager of The Journal of Educational Sociology and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations

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A. J. FOWERS, Business Manager

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 29th day of April, 1932

W. S. RYAN,

My commission expires March 30, 1934

LECTURE AND CONSULTATION SERVICE RELATED TO TEACHER GROUPS

ROBERT K. SPEER

The lecture method of instruction has fallen into disrepute in educational circles. Lecturing in campus courses is widely criticized by the philosophers of method who advocate an instructional plan calling for a higher degree of participation on the part of the entire group. It is suspected that the mass of the professional clan pay lip service to the philosophers of method while they continue to lecture.

There is not such a strenuous objection raised to lecturing before teachers, principals, and others who are in the field. Apparently there is an assumption that when an educational expert appears in a community, away from the campus, he may with impunity and without apology lecture his audience. Probably this is well, for while we may accept the implications of the philosophers' theory of method, we must not forget that the lecture method has been used for centuries by the clergy of the world who were not less successful in controlling conduct when they used it most. It is the method of the evangelist who gets at least temporary and oftentimes permanent behavior results. It is the method of the lawyer who pleads before the court, and some believe that the lecture plea is quite as effective as the evidence advanced in getting a certain desired behavior on the part of the jury-audience. It is the method of the Chautauqua speaker, and most would agree that millions of pleasant hours, and profitable ones too, are spent annually by Americans "listening" to travel accounts, the art of the Navajo Indians, and the problems and issues of contemporary civilization.

At any rate, one of the techniques for improving teachers in service practised widely by administrative and supervisory officers in school systems is occasionally to call into

the school organization those labelled as experts on various aspects of education. And further, these supervisory school officers usually follow the plan either of organizing institutes, in which several lectures are delivered within a period of a few days, or else of spacing the meetings over a longer period of time. This is the situation which the teacher-training institution, pledged to serve those on the firing line, finds.

Elsewhere in this issue will be found accounts of a supervisory-instructional service and of a specialized service related to curriculum revision. The authors of these articles believe these to be a superior type of service and certainly they are superior in terms of the amount of participation on the part of those who do participate at all. However, it is surely the responsibility of the teacher-training institution to serve the field workers as they wish to be served. It is, in addition, the responsibility of the teacher-training institution to improve this service.

CONFERENCES ON TEACHERS' MEETINGS

Schools of education should develop standards for teachers' meetings and should by one means or another make those in the field cognizant of the standards. Assuming a high caliber staff in the schools of education, members of this staff should be able to assist the field workers, who are in strategic positions, on the problem of how to organize a program of teachers' meetings. If those of us in schools of education are worthy of our hire, conferences with those making up the programs ought to do a lot of good.

There is a tendency for teacher-institute programs to deal with heterogeneous subjects, to include largely topics of a very general nature, and to overstress the inspirational type of thing. Through conference with those making up the programs, officers of teacher-training institutions may assist the field officers to avoid too great a variety of subjects, to have a central motif, to plan their lectures around a central theme. We may lead them to see that it is fre-

quently advisable to break large groups up into smaller groups and to break the subjects of the program up into a few units directly related to the interests of the specific groups. In areas where teacher institutes are held we might get them to consider the relative effectiveness of two or three or four meetings spaced throughout the year. We may encourage the program committees to plan for group discussions as well as lectures. We may make them aware of the effectiveness of demonstration meetings followed by discussion. We may acquaint them with the desirability of having exhibits of school materials related, if possible, directly or indirectly with the subject of the meeting. While it is probably justifiable to have one short session given over to general educational problems and treated inspirationally or entertainingly, we may advise as a substitute for this for rural teachers having less frequent opportunity for contact with the arts that one meeting be given over to a musicale. Through conference with those making up the programs, the members of the school of education staffs may diplomatically impart the wisdom that at teachers' meetings superintendents should not waste time taking up many administrative matters that could be handled through mimeographed materials, and that administrative presentations, at the meetings, should deal only with things requiring personal explanation.

ADVISING ON PROGRAM PERSONNEL

Help in planning the teachers' meetings is but a part of the service a school of education may properly render to the field. Schools of education should hold themselves in readiness to advise on the personnel—the lecturers and leaders of discussion themselves. If the faculty of the school of education has been well chosen, the institution called upon for service will have many staff members worthy of recommendation as speakers. If it serves unselfishly it will recommend the best available personnel even though the individuals involved reside elsewhere. Not only should the school of education be unselfish in its advice on lec-

turers, but, if it is worthy, it will be prepared with lists of able speakers outside its walls. Further, these lists will be classified according to specialization and particularized group interest and appeal.

Those in the field may properly command the time of schools of education in planning meetings and in recommending speakers for those meetings. Reputable schools of education will be willing and prepared to render this service. Professedly schools of education house staffs that keep informed on the best field practices everywhere. These staffs travel about. They meet superintendents here and there. They come in contact with experts in education in widely scattered areas. They may properly be expected to be more effective in planning teachers' meetings and in personnel selection than is the superintendent who has not been around as much and who is occupied with the details of administration and whose time is consumed with inside classroom supervision.

CONSULTATION SERVICE ON SPECIFIC SCHOOL PROBLEMS

The matter of conference service on specific school problems will be given less space here. It should not be assumed, however, that it is to be considered less emphatically an important service which a school of education may render to the field officers. A school of education should be prepared and enthusiastic in its willingness to consult with public- and private-school officers on specific problems of the school system.

Lightning-like changes are occurring in some phases of educational practice. Vocational education comes into being one year, a variety of shops are introduced into school-building plans for the few years following, and then, before the introduction is anywhere nearly complete, some one or group of individuals gives birth to the idea of a general shop. The superintendent and his staff may properly turn to the members of the vocational-education department of a school of education for advice. Members of schools of education sow the seed that grows into a

desire, on the part of a school system, to introduce a program of guidance. The professors who sowed the seed should be available to cultivate it. They should be available to field workers in working out the plans for introduction and for consultation on the problems and issues involved. If, in schools of education, we teach a philosophy of discipline or control at variance with the school practice of the time, we should be available for service to school officers in making the transfer from that which is to that which we have proposed.

Schools of education purport to prepare educational field workers for a variety of school positions. If they are qualified to prepare them for several types of positions, they should be qualified to help them with the problems that arise in these positions. Theoretically, at least, for each and every problem that arises on the firing line, the school of education should have a staff member sufficiently expert to give valuable assistance in the solving of that field problem. The ideal school of education will not only have the expert on its staff, but it will have a policy of service which makes that expert readily available to the field workers. If the educational workers in the field will come to the school of education, and if the school of education will go to the field workers, we will ultimately work out a program that is practical and sensible. Herein lies a method of integration between theory and practice. Finally, and it almost sounds contradictory, herein lies a method by which deans of instruction in schools of education may hope to educate their own staffs so that they may be better qualified effectively to train the young and inexperienced in their folds.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

A. F. MAYHEW

Many studies have been made of the ways in which superintendents have attempted to improve the work of teachers. The following list indicates the variety of activities promoted by school systems throughout the country in an effort to improve the work of teachers in service. These activities are listed without regard to value or popularity. Some have resulted in great efficiency while others are of doubtful value. The number and variety of activities, however, indicate the effort that is being made to improve the work of teachers in service and to raise teaching to a level of real professional worth.

1. Circular letters
2. Personal conferences
3. Reading educational literature
4. Visitation by superior officers
5. Regular general teachers' meetings
6. Group conferences on specific problems
7. Visiting other teachers
8. Special subject supervision
9. Additional salary for meritorious service
10. Pension plans
11. Tenure
12. Extension courses
13. Professional reading in current periodicals
14. Educational institutes
15. Encouraging teachers to experiment
16. Providing professional books and magazines
17. Enrolling teachers in professional organizations
18. Recommending professional courses
19. Rating teachers
20. Correspondence courses
21. Summer-school courses
22. Higher salaries
23. Lightening teacher load
24. Provision of free time for travel
25. Sabbatical year
26. Cooperative studies by teachers and supervisors
27. Adequate equipment
28. Cooperation by community

29. Follow-up work by training schools
30. Demonstration schools
31. Experimental schools

The following lists of activities designed to improve the work of teachers in service is based on the reports of several hundred school systems throughout the country. The first list gives in rank order the ten most effective methods used, based on the judgment of superintendents of small school systems. The second list records the judgment of superintendents in the larger school systems of the country.

METHODS USED IN TEACHER IMPROVEMENT IN SMALLER SCHOOL
SYSTEMS—ARRANGED IN RANK ORDER

	Per Cent of the Systems Reporting
1. Personal conference	59
2. Reading educational literature	56
3. Visitation by superior officer	53
4. Regular general teachers' meetings	53
5. Group conferences on specific problems	44
6. Visiting other teachers	21
7. Demonstration teaching by other teachers	14
8. Supervising bulletins	14
9. Checking teaching methods	14
10. Assignment to special educational projects	14

METHODS USED FOR IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE IN LARGE
SCHOOL SYSTEMS—ARRANGED IN RANK ORDER

	Per Cent of the Systems Reporting
1. Pension or retirement plan	90
2. Visitation by superior officer	62
3. Personal conference	62
4. Group conferences on specific problems	59
5. Supervision by general or special supervisors	56
6. Additional salary for merit	56
7. Enrollment in extension or correspondence courses	46
8. Regular general teachers' meetings	27
9. Reading professional literature	27
10. Summer-school attendance	24

The following list of books has been read in the preparation of the foregoing discussion. These references may be useful to the student of in-service education whether

in a teachers college, normal school, or university school of education.

- Public Education in the United States*, by E. P. Cubberley. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919.
- Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching*, by W. H. Burton. New York D. Appleton and Company, 1922.
- Public School Administration*, by E. P. Cubberley. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916.
- A Work Book for Principals and Supervisors*, by R. H. Lane. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930.
- The Determination of Objectives in Teacher Training*, by F. L. Whitney
- Activity Analysis of the Work of the General Supervisor*, by F. L. Whitney
- Supervision of Instruction*, by A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton. New York D Appleton and Company, 1926.
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- Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching*, by W. H. Burton. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1922.
- The Principal and His School*, by E. P. Cubberley. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923.
- The Value of School Supervision, Demonstrated with the Zone Plan in Rural Schools*, by M. S. Pittman. Baltimore Warwick and York, 1921
- Common Sense in School Supervision*, by C. A. Wagner. Milwaukee, Wis. Bruce Publishing Company, 1921.
- The Classroom Teacher*, by G. D. Strayer and N. L. Englehardt New York. American Book Company, 1920
- Outline of Systematic Supervision*, by John W. Withers. New York New York University Press, 1930.
- Visiting the Teacher at Work*, by C. J. Anderson, A. S. Barr, and M. G. Bush New York. D Appleton and Company, 1925.
- Supervision of the Elementary School*, by Clarence R. Stone Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929.
- How to Supervise*, by George C. Kyte Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930
- Public School Organization and Administration*, by Fred Engelhardt. Boston Ginn and Company, 1931.
- School Supervision in Theory and Practice*, by Ellsworth Collings. New York. The Crowell Publishing Company, 1927
- The Improvement of the City Elementary School Teacher in Service*. Teachers College Contributions to Education No. 128, by Charles Russell. New York Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922.
- The Growth of Teachers in Service*, by F. L. Whitney. New York: The Century Company, 1927.
- The Improvement of City Elementary Teachers in Service*, by C. F. Russell. New York Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922.

A SELECTED AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PERIODICAL LITERATURE ON IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

NOBLE F. GREENHILL

In an effort to select articles representative of current practice and thought with reference to the in-service education of teachers, an examination of current periodical literature from March 1, 1931, to December 1, 1931, was undertaken. In this study use was made of the Educational Index and the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature. Copies of magazines not listed in either of these publications were available for examination. In this way the issues of approximately seven hundred fifty magazines appearing over a period of nine months were searched for articles dealing with this subject or some phase of it. A reexamination of these articles eliminated all of them except twenty. Although there is some duplication in them, it is believed they are representative of the original group as a whole.

1. Bennett, A. L., "Clinics for Teachers" *Virginia Journal of Education*, Vol. 24, March 1931, pp. 290-291

Describes a plan in use in Albemarle County which makes it possible for white elementary teachers to observe regular classroom instruction. Four schools were selected and each taught on a separate Saturday. The superintendent of education sends a written notice when a teacher is required to visit a school but any teacher may visit any school on any Saturday it is open.

2. Butsch, R. L. C., "The Preparation of Teachers" *Review of Educational Research*, 1, 2, April 1931, pp. 76-82

The latter part of this article is devoted to a summarization of the devices for in-service training of teachers.

3. Dearborn, Ned H., "The In-Service Education of Teachers" *The Journal of the National Education Association*, 20, 6, June 1931, pp. 193-194.

The following six functions of a program of teacher education are presented and discussed: (1) to provide reasonable mastery of subject matter, (2) to assist teachers to formulate a definite

philosophy of education, (3) to provide understanding of child nature, (4) to develop powers of evaluation; (5) to provide ethical training, and (6) to provide education for life outside the classroom. A plea for the integration of pre-service and in-service education of teachers which will take into account these fundamental functions in a total program of teacher education

- 4 Dearborn, Ned H., "The Relation between General Education and Technical Training in the Professional Education of Teachers" National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, pp. 257-258 (abstract).

In-service education of teachers is discussed from the point of view of a university school of education. Extension courses, summer-school study, general surveys, special investigations, services of faculty member as a special adviser, cooperative research, and specialized supervision are the items included

5. Dewolf, George E., "What We are Doing Already to Promote Growth of Teachers Inservice" National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, p. 210 (abstract).

Professional and cultural reading, membership in teachers' organizations, teachers' meetings, and personal conferences have been found useful in Creston, Iowa

- 6 Eberhart, R., "Evaluating Your Own Teaching." *The Journal of the National Education Association*, 20, 8, August 1931, p. 304

A series of questions is grouped around six divisions of the topic, one of which is professional growth

7. Evenden, E. S., "Issues in Teacher-Training Programs." *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 17, 7, October 1931, pp. 530-534.

The greater part of this article deals with issues relating to pre-service training. The question of the extent to which professional preparation of teachers may be left for in-service education is included as an issue

- 8 Garretson, O. K., "In-Service Training of Teachers in High Schools in Oklahoma." *The School Review*, 39, 6, June 1931, pp. 449-460

A study of the use made of five groups of activities in sixty-four public high schools in Oklahoma that were members of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in May 1930.

- 9 Gist, Arthur S., "Important Points of View in Teacher-Training." *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 17, 4, April 1931, pp. 269-278

Takes into account follow-up plans to ensure the success of the inexperienced teacher

10. Haisley, Otto W., "Providing for the Training of Teachers In-service." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Official Report*, 1931, p. 163 (abstract).

A salary schedule based on university study or foreign travel and a sabbatical leave for one year at half pay has proved valuable in the Ann Arbor schools.

11. Hendricks, J. J., "The Inservice Training of Teachers in Small School Systems." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Official Report*, 1931, pp. 171-172 (abstract)

This article contains a list of twenty-three methods that are being used to improve teachers in service. Particular attention is given to the value of teachers' meetings and topics are suggested for such meetings.

12. Hunt, E. A., "Training of Teachers Inservice Through the State Department of Education." *Addresses and Proceedings*, National Education Association, 1931, pp. 527-528 (abstract).

Urges a continuous program of in-service training as well as one of pre-service training.

13. Moore, M. H., "How Can School Administrators Cooperate with Teachers Colleges in the Improvement of Teachers Inservice?" National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Official Report*, 1931, pp. 161-162 (abstract).

Three specific methods of cooperation are discussed; namely: (1) furnish teacher-training institutions with data regarding excellencies and shortcomings of graduates; (2) administrators should have large part in stating the philosophy of education and the setting up of standards; and (3) administrators should make practical suggestions to teachers returning to teacher-training institutions for additional training.

14. Morrison, J. Cayce, "The Relation between General and Technical Education in the In-Service Training of Teachers." *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 17, 6, September 1931, pp. 417-425.

An analysis of the fourfold problems of in-service teacher-training with a statement of the functions of the State education department as related to them. (1) should be equipped for research in teacher training; (2) should establish standards for training and certification of all members of the teaching profession, (3) in the exercise of leadership should utilize the best talent of the State; and (4) should assume leadership in the integration of teacher-training institutions and local supervisory staffs in developing an in-service program for training.

15. Munn, G. E., "Demonstration Lessons as a Teacher Training Device." National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals *Yearbook*, Vol 10, 1931, pp. 276-281
 May be used with beginning teachers, experienced teachers teaching a new method for the first time, teachers weak in methods and techniques, experienced teachers doing experimental work, and teachers who are anxious to acquire new ideas although they are experienced and capable.

16. O'Brien, Irene, "Training Teachers Inservice through Supervision from the State Department of Education." *Addresses and Proceedings*, National Education Association, 1931, pp. 528-529 (abstract)
 The Missouri plan which originated in 1923 is brought down to date. It is primarily a plan of rural supervision.

17. Saam, Theodore, "Stimuli being Offered to Promote Growth of Teachers Inservice." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, p. 209 (abstract).
 This is a summary of the judgments of three hundred twenty-four successful teachers in seven schools systems in five States. Both high-school and elementary teachers considered summer school and travel as effective means of growth. They suggested that visitations, travel and summer-school allowance, fixed tenure, and observation of demonstration lessons should receive more emphasis.

18. Sanberg, G. H., "Democracy in Promoting the Growth of Teachers Inservice" National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, pp. 169-170 (abstract)
 An example of the local education association as a means of keeping teachers in touch with the general trend of affairs. One outstanding activity of this association was the study and selection of textbooks.

19. Smith, Norma, "Introducing Newer Technics and Procedures to Rural Teachers" National Education Association, *Addresses and Proceedings*, 1931, pp. 518-519 (abstract).
 The following methods are suggested (1) acquainting teachers with underlying principles and philosophy, (2) beginning with a few select teachers, (3) providing for demonstration of procedures, (4) making follow-up supervisory visits to individual teachers, and (5) holding group and general meetings for further discussion of principles and evaluation of procedures and results.

20. "Third State Education Conference at University, Alabama." *Alabama School Journal*, 49, 1, September 1931, p. 9
 An illustration of the use of a State-wide conference for the in-service training of administrators and teachers.

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